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HYBRID CODING SYSTEMS STUDY FINAL REPORT

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LINKABIT CORPORATION

10453 ROSELLE STREET UNIVERSITY INDUSTRIAL PARK SAN DIEGO, CALIFORNIA 92121



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1.0 <u>Introduction</u>

With the growth of digital space communication in the past decade, the introduction of sophisticated coding techniques has provided efficiency improvements which have resulted in reductions of required power or extended communication range for numerous space missions. While early coding applications were for relatively low data rates, recent emphasis has been on real-time decoders capable of operation at data rates above 1 Mbps and even approaching 100 Mbps. These efforts have resulted in the development of high speed decoders which provide on the order of 4 to 6 dB of coding gain depending on the data rate, code rate or bandwidth expansion, and error probability requirements.

The left half of Table 1.0.1 summarizes the present state of efficiency improvement available with high speed decoders presently in operation or under development. The required ratio of bit-energy-to-noise-density, $E_{\rm b}/N_{\rm o}$, is given in each case for bit error probabilities of 10^{-4} and 10^{-7} .

When the data speed requirements are reduced to the levels of deep space applications, which are on the order of from 1 Kbps to 100 Kbps, greater coding gains can be achieved. At these reduced speeds, sequential decoding particularly can be shown to operate more efficiently.

^{*}Only convolutional codes are considered here. Block codes which were common in early applications are so definitely inferior both in required complexity and in resulting performance that their further treatment is not worthwhile for the systems under consideration, other than as outer codes in a concatenated coding system.

DECODER	UNCODED	SEQUENTIAL (HARD DECISION)	VITERBI	VITERBI	SEQUENTIAL (SOFT DECISION)	CONCATENATED	HYBRID BOOTSTRAP SEQUENTIAL	PAP IAL
Quantization/levels	2	2	æ	60	60	8	œ	
Convolutional Code Rate	•	1/2	1/2	1/3	1/3	1/3	1/3	
Constraint length for V.D.	•	8	7	œ	,	· œ		
Buffer Size for S.D. and concatenated		64 K	1	1	64 X	64 X*	64 X*	
Sequential decoder computation rate in Nega computationtal	•	100	•	•	H		15	
Principal Logic Family	•	MECL III +MECL 10,000 +TTL	TTL	TTL	TTL	TL	MECL 10,000	,000
Data Rate		40 Mbgs	2 to 8 Mbps	100 Kbps	sed to	100 Kbyst	10 Xbps	100 Kbps
E_b/N_o (dB) for $P_B = 10^{-4}$. 4.8	, 0°S	3.7	3.0	2.8	1.93	1.7	2.2
E_b/N_o (dB) for $P_B = 10^{-7}$	11.3	5.7	5.6	. 4.8	3.4	2.18	2.0	3.2
Approximate Number of IC's	•	700	250	. 150	. 400	333	450	

*Half of this storage is for the current block being received, while the other half is for the previous block being decoded. tht speeds of 10 Kbps or below there is a potential improvement of up to 0.2 dB, but only if the storage buffer is essentially doubled in size.

Table 1.0.1 Summary of Convolutional Decoder Performance

A hard quantized high speed sequential decoder can be operated with about 1 dB less $E_{\rm b}/N_{\rm o}$, because of the increased number of computations per bit period. Further performance can be gained at lower speeds by using soft '8 or more level) quantization and thus regaining most of the 2 dB loss inherent in hard (2 level) quantization. Also, more efficient Viterbi decoders are possible at reduced data rates, although the improvement in this case is not as great.

The potential performance of low rate decoders is shown in the middle columns of Table 1.0.1. For the sequential decoder, we consider a code-rate 1/3 system. Assuming a computation speed of 1 Megacomputations/second on soft decision data, a 64 K bit buffer, and a 500 bit block length with frame resynchronization, we find an improvement of about 2.3 dB relative to the hard decision, code-rate 1/2, high speed sequential decoder operating at 40 Mbps. The improvement is about 1 dB less if both are operating at 100 Kbps. For the Viterbi decoder, we consider a constraint-length 8, code-rate 1/3 decoder which is considerably less complex than the low rate sequential decoder. Its performance is equivalent or better for bit error rates above 10⁻⁴, but it becomes progressively worse at low error rates. Improvements in either system through increased complexity (larger buffer and higher computation speed with ECL logic for the sequential decoder - higher

constraint lengths with greatly increased path and metric memory requirements for the Viterbi decoder) are very costly and could gain on the order of 0.5 dB.

A more promising approach at low data rates is the use of concatenated or hybrid coding and decoding techniques. This study deals with the performance and implementation of two particularly promising techniques, shown in the right-hand part of Table 1.0.1. Each is based essentially on one of the decoders just discussed, augmented by an additional device (block decoder for the concatenated system - control logic and additional metric calculators for the hybrid system) whose complexity is not greater than that of the original decoders. Yet the resulting improvement is much greater than would be possible if the original decoders were simply upgraded by increasing the complexity or speed in the manners discussed above.

Some of the conclusions are summarized in the two rightmost columns of Table 1.0.1. The performance of the two systems are remarkably similar and the required buffer sizes are approximately the same. The concatenated approach appears to require about one third fewer IC's, and these are of the TTL rather than of the MSI ECL logic family. The latter are required by the hybrid system because of the high required speed factor of the sequential decoder. These advantages are partially offset by the fact that the concatenated system requires several read-only memory (ROM) and random-access memory (RAM) chips which are relatively expensive.

Otherwise, it actually appears that the concatenated system is preferable and that it is even cost-competitive with a simple sequential decoder, while achieving approximately a 1 dB performance gain on the latter. All the systems in the three rightmost columns require approximately the same buffer size. In only two respects the concatenated system may be inferior to the other two: namely, while the sequential decoder generally requires about a 30 bit synchronization sequence (tail) for approximately every 500 data bits, and the hybrid bootstrap decoder requires about a 164 bit synchronization sequence for approximately every 3000 bits, the concatenated decoder in the preferred form requires a 4096 bit non-data sequence (consisting primarily of outer code parity checks) every 28,672 data bits. These long gaps in the data stream may not be significantly disturbing when many users are time-division multiplexed together, but may represent a serious drawback when only one data stream is sent. This problem can almost certainly be alleviated by using a staggered interleaving scheme. Unfortunately, this requires the simultaneous (though still serial) decoding of several outer code words. A secondary and corollary effect is that the decoding delay in the concatenated system is of the order of 32 to 64 Kbits, while for the sequential and hybrid sequential systems, it is only on the order of the 64K of buffer storage which corresponds only to about 7000 bits.

Finally, it should be noted that an ideal rate 1/3 eight-level soft decision coded system operating at channel capacity requires a bit energy-to-noise density of -0.3 dB. This means that the two systems under consideration are operating at about 2.5 dB from the ultimate capacity (or Shannon limit) of the coding format. Thus, it appears from Table 1.0 that at $P_b = 10^{-7}$, there are almost 12 dB of ultimate coding gain between the uncoded system and the ideal coded system operating at channel capacity. With the first level of sophistication (leftmost third) involving coding with rate 1/2 codes, which may operate up to multimegabit data rates, almost half this gain is achievable. With the second level of sophistication (middle third) involving code rate 1/3 lower data rates, longer codes for Viterbi decoding, and soft rather than hard decision sequential decoding, an additional 1 to 2 dB are gained. Beyond this, the third level of sophistication under consideration here gains another 1.5 to 2 dB at $P_b = 10^{-1}$. Thus, obviously another such step-function increase is just not possible. Experience in this study and previously has convinced us of the futility and frustration in further attempts in reducing the small gap left in achievable coding gain. The next "breakthrough," if it ever occurs, might be worth another 0.5 dB. As will be discussed in Section 4.0, we conclude that, on the basis of present theory and technology, the concatenated or hybrid coding

systems under consideration can be realized in a costeffective manner and are certain to stand as the ultimate
in coding gain for space communication systems far into
the foreseeable future.

This final report is organized as follows. In Section 2 we treat concatenated coding and decoding, beginning with a review of the principles of operation and a detailed analysis of performance with various configurations. We then consider several possible implementations and concentrate on a detailed evaluation of the preferred hardware implementation. In Section 3, we proceed in the same way for hybrid coding and decoding. Section 4 presents our conclusions and recommendations.

2.0 Concatenated Codira and Decoding

The principle of concatenated coding and decoding as a means of reducing the number of errors in received data in two or more successive stages began with Elias' iterative coding procedures (Ref. 1). They were extended for block codes by numerous researchers, the most complete study being that of Forney (Ref. 2). Pinsker first (Ref. 3) and later Stiglitz (Ref. 4) considered concatenation of convolutional and block codes, using a block code as the inner (first stage) code in an attempt to improve the channel, so as to increase the computational cutoff rate R_{comp} for the sequential decoder operating on the outer (second stage) code. While this produced interesting theoretical results, it requires a very complex and impractical inner decoder. A much more reasonable approach is to use the more efficient and powerful code - the convolutional code - internally and thus, for a given complexity, improve the channel as much as possible for the outer decoder. While the outer decoder may also be convolutional, the resulting "super channel" consisting of the original channel with inner coder and decoder seems especially well suited to a particular class of block codes over a multiple alphabet discovered by Reed and Solomon (Ref. 5). This technique used with Viterbi decoding was investigated by Odenwalder (Ref. 6) and found to yield rather impressive results. In the remainder of this section, we concentrate on this approach

2.1 Operation

The basic block diagram is shown in Figure 2.1.1. The inner coder-decoder is a short constraint length convolutional coder with a Viterbi (maximum likelihood) decoder. Typically this decoder is operated at an E_b/N_o level sufficient to produce a bit error probability in the range 10^{-2} > P_b > 10^{-3} . The outer code is a high rate (low redundancy) block code which then reduces the final block, and consequently bit, error probability to the desired The most efficient class of codes found for this purpose are the Reed-Solomon (R-S) codes with a block length of 2^J-1 symbols over a 2^J-ary alaphabet, where the best choice of J appears to be approximately equal to the constraint length of the inner coder. The interleaving buffers are required because the inner decoder errors tend to occur in bursts, which occasionally are as long as several constraint lengths. While the outer decoder is undisturbed by burst errors within a given 2^J-ary symbol (which corresponds to J bits or about one constraint length), its performance is severely degraded by highly correlated errors among several successive symbols; hence the need for interleaving.

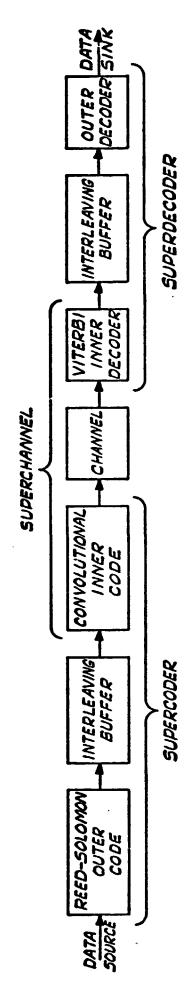


Figure 2.1.1 Concatenated Coding System.

2.2 Performance

To evaluate the performance of this concatenated coding system under cost and complexity constraints, the significant parameters of the inner code are the R-S symbol error probability and the distribution of lengths of consecutive R-S symbol errors, the latter being required to determine the required interleaver dimensions.

Both experimentally and theoretically a more directly derived indication of inner code performance is the distribution of error lengths in bits. The length of an error-burst for a convolutional code of constraint length K is naturally defined as the number of bits starting with the initial error and terminating when K-1 consecutive correct bits have been received. Let this distribution of bit error burst lengths be denoted by

Q_k = Pr (at any node an error-burst of length k terminates) (2.2.1)

We desire to determine the distribution of lengths of consecutive R-S symbol errors, P_j , from the bit error burst distribution Q_k .

To determine P_j we must recognize, first of all, that the error bursts on the inner convolutional code are totally asynchronous to the outer code symbol phase.

Suppose then that the first incorrect R-S symbol begins m bits prior to the start of the convolutional code bit

rror burst. Because of the asynchronous nature of the situation, m is a uniformly distributed random variable on the interval $0 \le m \le J - 1$. Now conditioning on a fixed m we have

$$jJ-m$$

$$P_{j}(m) = \sum_{k=(j-1)J-m+1} Q_{k} , j = 1, 2, ... (2.2.2)$$

and we define

$$Q_k = 0 \text{ for } k \leq 0$$

Summing on the variable m, we have therefore,

$$\dot{P}_{j} = \sum_{m=0}^{J-1} P_{j}(m) = \sum_{m=0}^{J-1} \sum_{k=(j-1)J-m+1}^{jJ-m} Q_{k}, j=1,2...$$

If J > K-1, this expression is exact since every subsequence of J bits must contain at least one error and hence cause the R-S symbol to be in error. On the other hand, if J < K-1, some R-S symbol in the sequence may possibly be correct, so that (2.2.3) becomes an over estimate at the high end of the distribution.

To obtain the R-S symbol error probability from the error length distribution, we need to weigh P_j by the number of errors in each case. Since, as pointed out above, we take all consecutive symbols to be in error, we have for the symbol

error probability

$$\Pi_{s} = \sum_{j=1}^{\infty} jP_{j} \qquad (2.2.4)$$

Also from (2.2.3) we can obtain the desired interleaving length. For example, if we require that the ultimate (outer code) error probability be P_b , then we should take the interleaver length L in R-S symbols to be such that

$$_{L}^{P} < _{b}^{P}$$
 (2.2.5)

Finally, assuming a long enough interleaver so that we can neglect error dependencies, the output bit error probability can be bounded as follows. For an E-error-correcting R-S outer code, a R-S block error occurs when more than E symbol errors occur in the block. When this happens, the R-S decoder indicates that at most E symbols are in error. So, if the superchannel causes E+i, $1 \le i \le 2^J - 1 - E$, symbol errors in the block, at most 2E + i symbol errors will result. Thus, the concatenated code symbol probability of error can be upper bounded by

$$P_s \le \sum_{i=E+1}^{2^{J}-1} (i+E) {2^{J}-1 \choose i} \prod_{s}^{i} (1-\prod_{s})^{2^{J}-1-i} (2.2.6)$$

Since some of the bits in an incorrect symbol may be correct, the bit probability of error is less than or equal to the symbol probability of error. The symbol errors caused by the R-S decoder will have about half their bits in error, while those caused by the superchannel will typically have from .25 to .40 of their bits in error, depending on the particular inner code and channel. Here we will simply upper bound the bit probability of error by the symbol probability of error. Thus,

$$P_{b} \leq \sum_{i=E+1}^{2^{J}-1} (i+E) {2^{J}-1 \choose i} \Pi_{s}^{i} (1-\Pi_{s})^{2^{J}-1-i}$$
 (2.2.7)

To cover the data rates of interest and to provide the performance data needed to optimize this system for various complexity constraints, the following inner codes were simulated.

1)	K=7,	R=1/2	with	code	generators						0		
2)	K=8,	R=1/2	with	code	generators							0	
3)	K=8,	R=1/3	with	code	generators	1	1	0	1	1	0	1 0 0	1
4)	K=8,	R=1/7	with	code	generators	1 1 1 1	0 1 1 0 0	1 0 0 0	0 1 1 1	0 0 1 0 1	1 0 1	0 1 1 0 0 1	1 1 1 1

The code generators in Cases 1, 2, and 3 are those obtained by Odenwalder in Reference 6. These code generators were chosen to minimize the bit probability of error at large E_b/N_o ratios. However, in the range of E_b/N_o 's used here other codes could yield better results.

The code generators in Case 4 were obtained using the code generators of Odenwalder's rate 1/3 code, his rate 1/2 code, and the reciprocals of his rate 1/2 code. In this case, this yields a code with a free distance of 38, which is close to the upper bound of 40 which Heller (Reference 7) has obtained on the free distance of K=8, R=1/7 codes.

These simulations were for convolutional coding systems with practically implementable Viterbi decoders (Reference 8) using 8 levels of receiver quantization and a path length memory of 32 bits. The bit error burst length statistics were computed and equations 2.2.3 through 2.2.7 were used to compute the R-S symbol probability of error, the distribution of lengths of consecutive R-S symbol errors, and the bit probability of error bound.

Figures 2.2.1 through 2.2.4 give the concatenated code bit probability of error bound for a K=7, R=1/2 convolutional code and 6, 7, 8, and 9 bits per R-S symbol, respectively. They show that for a fixed alphabet size and probability of error, there is an optimum number

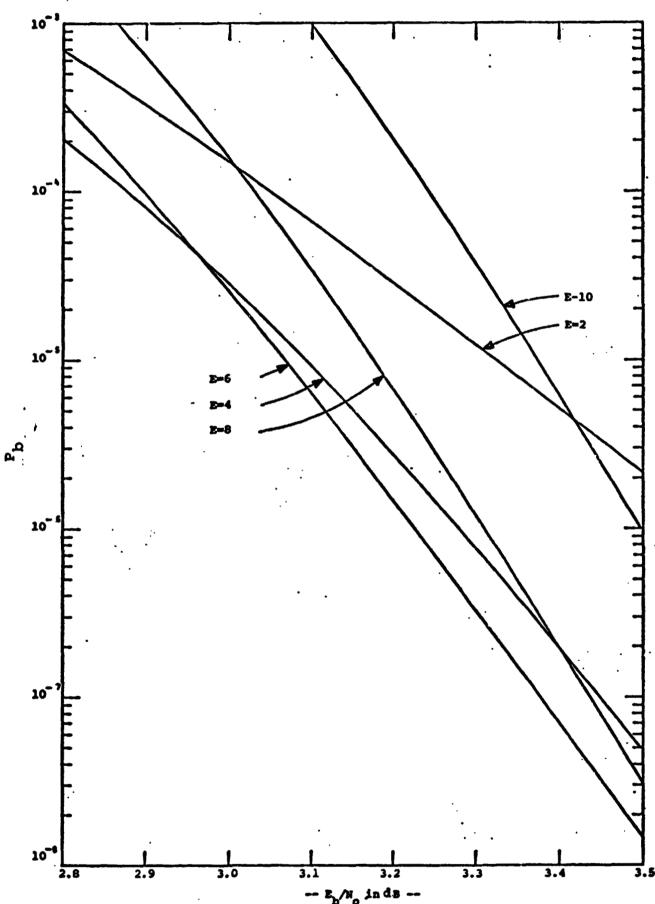


Figure 2.2.1. Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=7, R=1/2 Inner Code and 6 Bits/R-S Symbol.

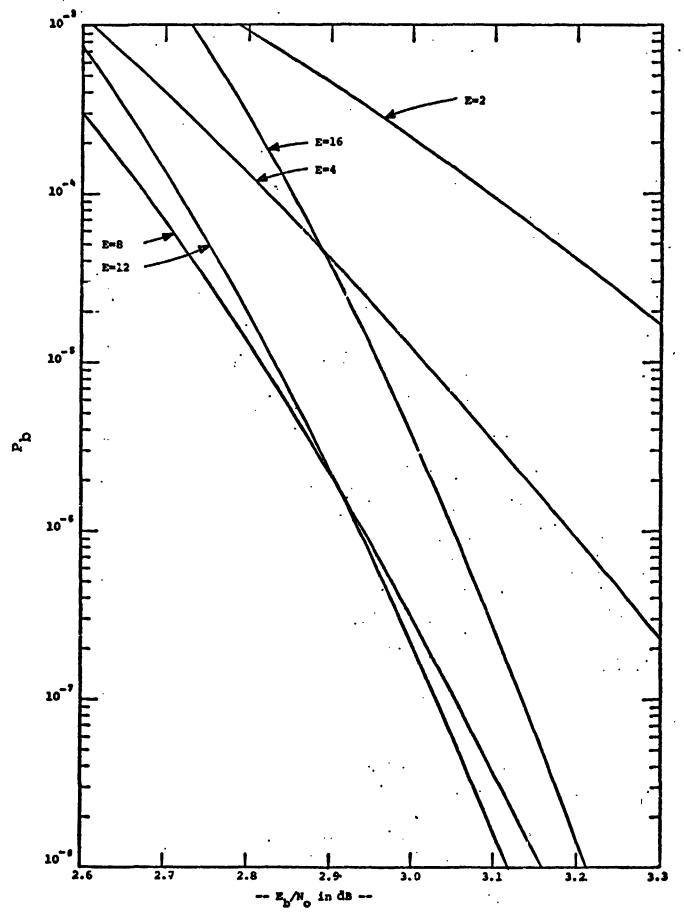
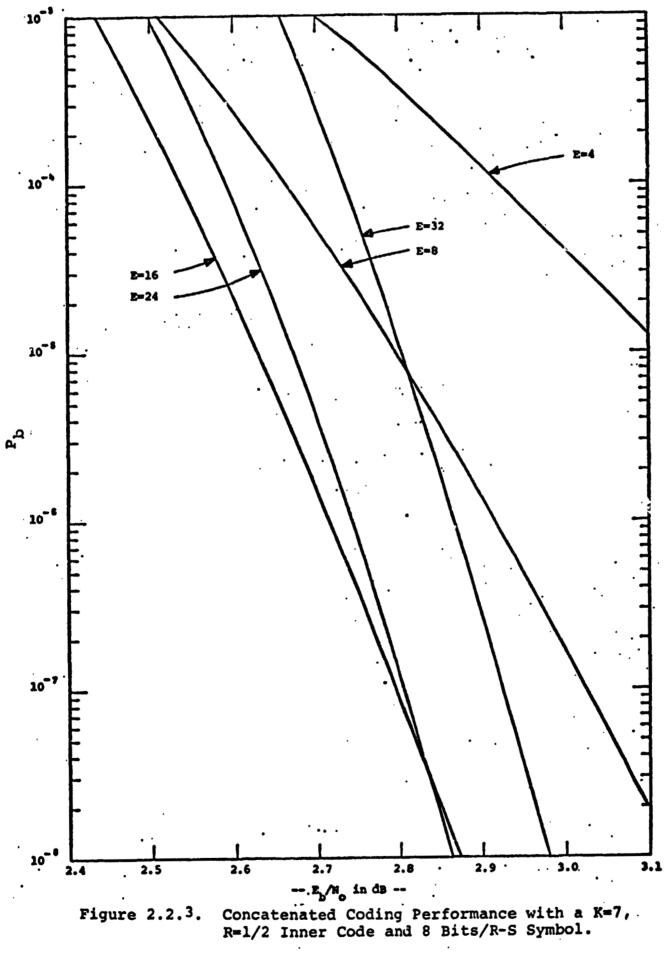


Figure 2.2.2. Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=7, R=1/2 Inner Code and 7 Bits/R-S Symbol.



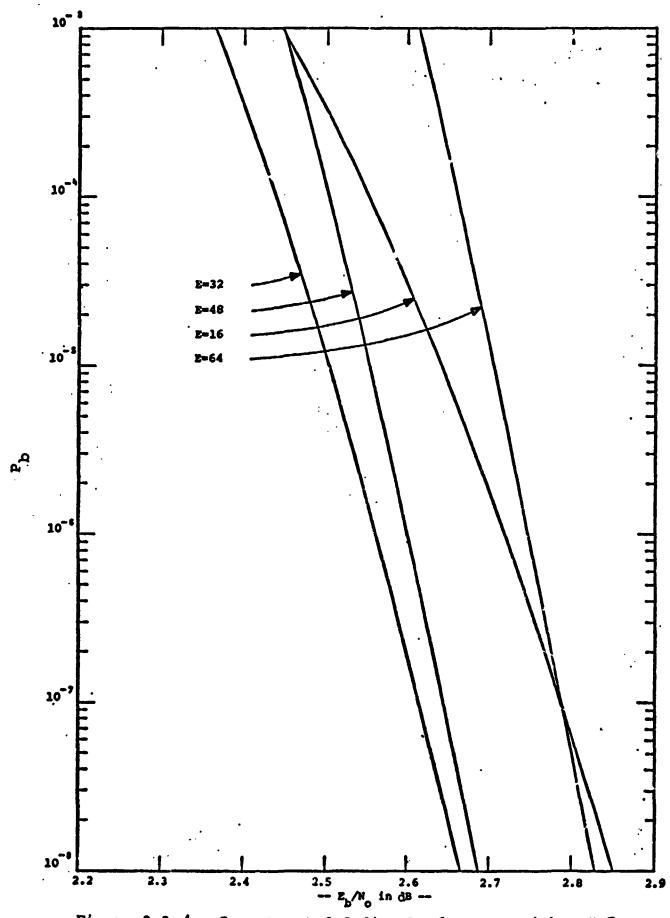


Figure 2.2.4. Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=7, R=1/2 Inner Code and 9 Bits/R-S Symbol.

of correctable errors. That is, if the outer code is designed to correct too many errors, the inner code E_b/N_o decrease, and thus the superchannel symbol probability of error increase, more than offsets the large error correcting ability of the outer code. These curves also show in some cases that it may be desirable to design the outer decoder to correct less than the optimum number of correctable errors. Such a system would require a larger E_b/N_o ratio to achieve a specified probability of error, but the decoder would be faster and easier to implement.

Figures 2.2.5 through 2.2.8 summarize the performance of this concatenated coding system for the four convolutional inner codes, various alphabet sizes, and near optimum outer code error correcting ability.

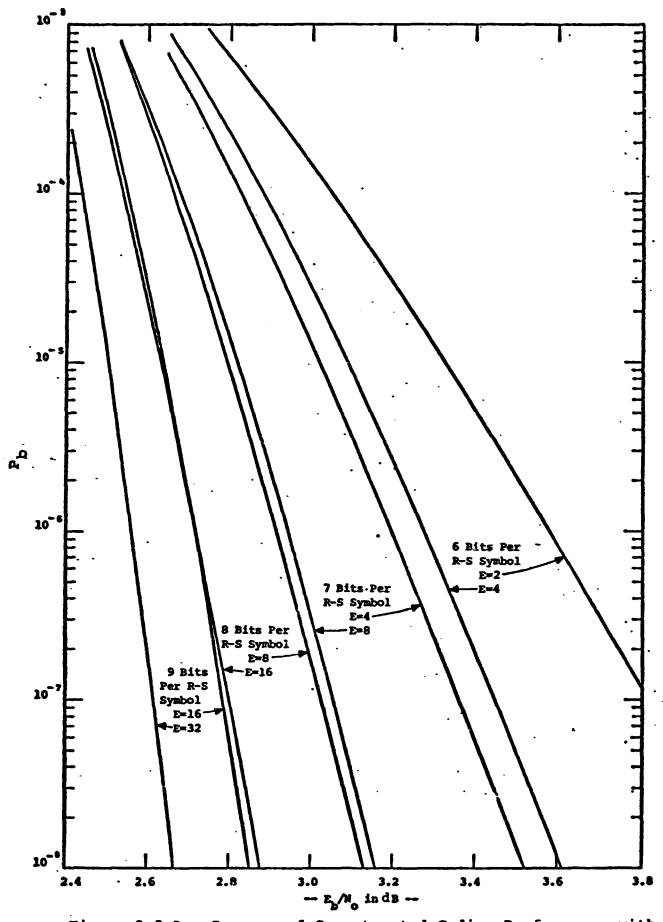


Figure 2.2.5. Summary of Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=7, R=1/2 Inner Code.

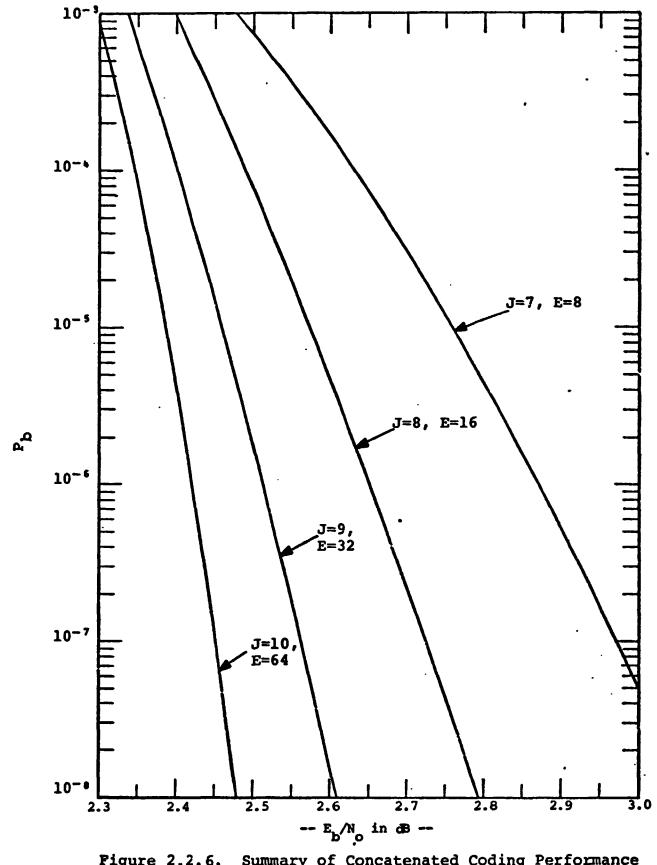


Figure 2.2.6. Summary of Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=8, R=1/2 Inner Code and a 2 -Symbol E-Error-Cor. acting Outer Code.

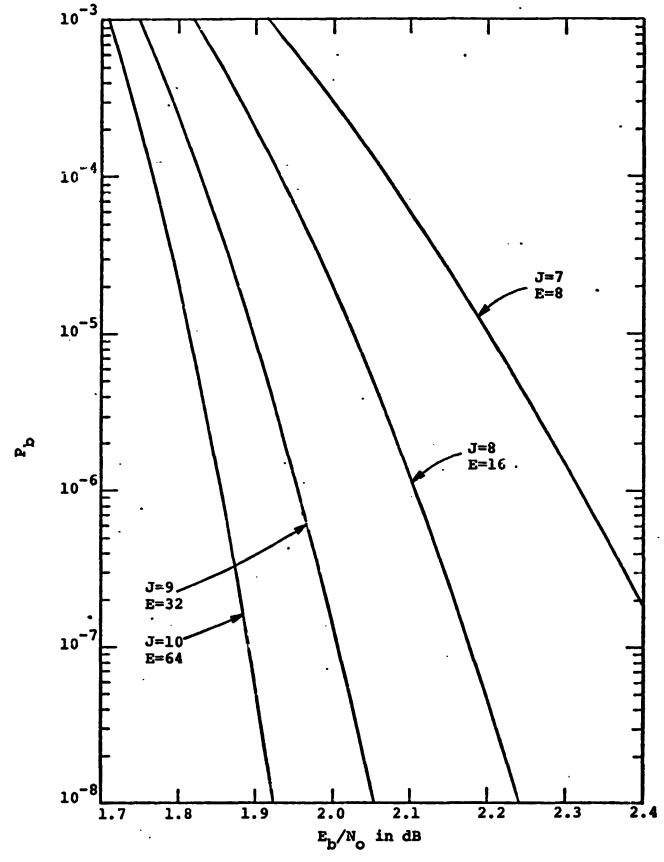


Figure 2.2.7. Summary of Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=8, R=1/3 Inner Code and a 2^J -Symbol E-Error-Correcting Outer Code.

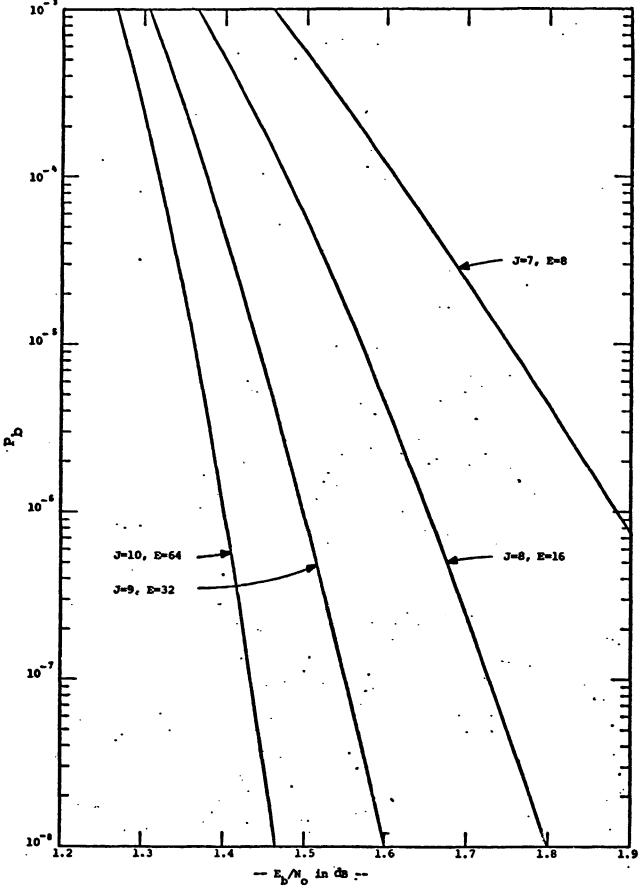


Figure 2.2.8. Summary of Concatenated Coding Performance with a K=8, R=1/7 Inner Code and a 2^J-Symbol E-Error-Correcting Outer Code.

2.3 Implementation Procedure

At data rates up to 100 Kbps, hardware implementation of constraint length 7 and 8 Viterbi decoders is relatively straightforward. LINKABIT has implemented a K=7, R=1/2 Viterbi decoder* using only 85 IC's and the implementation of K=8 Viterbi decoders is documented in References 8 and 9. So most of the system design here is concerned with the outer coder-decoder and the interleaving buffers. For the present purpose, the inner coder-decoder can be regarded as part of the channel. The inner code rate and constraint length have virtually no effect on the outer code design, except to the small extent that longer constraint lengths cause longer error bursts and hence require longer interleaving.

The basic outer code parameters are summarized in the code structure diagram of Figure 2.3.1. Each of the I rows in this array represents a R-S code word of 2^J-1, J-bit symbols followed by a J-bit segment of a synchronization sequence. This assumes, of course, that the data to be transmitted can be interrupted periodically for the insertion of the (2E+1)JI parity and synchronization bits. This will be the case, for example, when several users are time-division multiplexed together. I is the degree of interleaving, chosen sufficiently long to ensure the independence of successive horizontal R-S symbols, E is the guaranteed number of correctable R-S symbol errors, and 2E is the required

^{*} It is estimated that a K=8, R=1/3 Viterbi decoder can be implemented for data rates up to 100 Kbps with 150 TTL IC's.

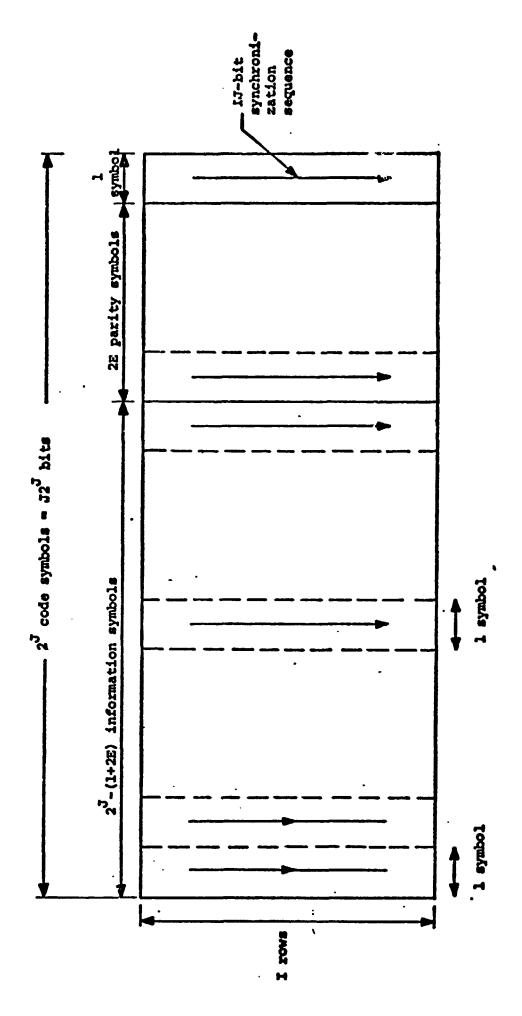


Figure 2.3.1 .Outer Code Array.

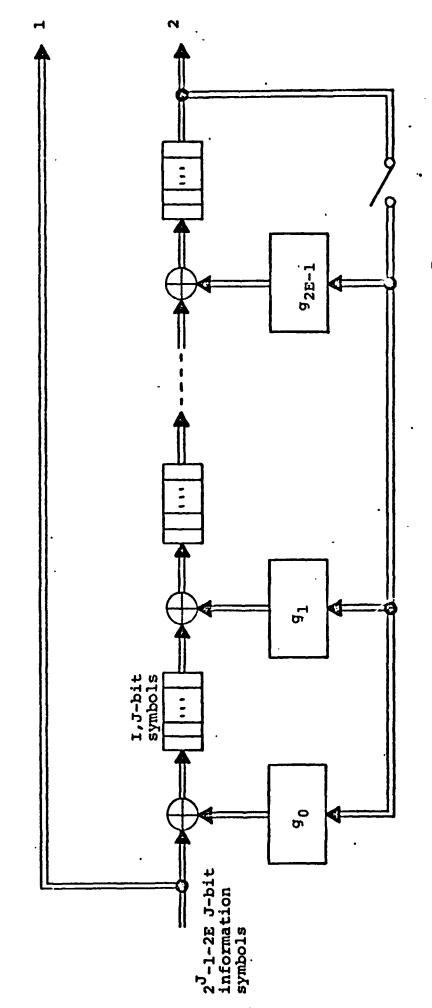
number of parity checks. It is assumed that the data is presented to the encoder in blocks of IJ(2^J-1-2E) information bits followed by a period where the 2EIJ parity bits and the IJ-bit synchronization sequence can be inserted. The encoded bits are read out of the array in blocks of J bits (one R-S symbol) one column at a time and fed to the inner convolutional encoder.

Code synchronization is obtained using the IJ-bit synchronization sequence of Figure 2.3.1 and the synchronization ability of the Viterbi decoder. The Viterbi decoder provides inner code node synchronization and phase ambiguity resolution as described in Reference 8. Then the IJ-bit sequence of superchannel symbols is used to obtain code array, and thus R-S symbol, synchronization. However, due to the bursty nature of the superchannel, several code arrays may have to be examined to obtain the code array synchronization.

2.3.1 Encoder and Interleaver Design

The encoding and interleaving operations can be accomplished as shown symbolically in Figure 2.3.2. This basic encoder is the most efficient for a cyclic code with 2E parity checks when $2E < 2^J - 1 - 2E$ (see Figure 6.5.5 of Reference 10). The double lines represent J-bit signal flow and the additions and multiplications are over $GF(2^J)$. The generator polynomial is

$$g(D) = g_0 + g_1 D + ... + g_{2E-1} D^{2E-1}$$
 (2.3.1)



Switch to 1 for first 2^J-1-2E symbol shifts then to 2 for 2E symbol shifts.

Closed for first 2^{J} -1-2E symbol shifts Open for 2E symbol shifts

Figure 2.3.2 Outer Encoder and Interleaver.

where the coefficients, g_i , are from $GF(2^J)$. In particular, if the field is generated by a primitive element α and α , α^2 , α^3 , ..., α^{2E} are roots of the code word polynomial, then

$$g(D) = \Pi (D-\alpha^{i})$$
 (2.3.2)
 $i=1$

We will restrict our attention to this class of R-S codes throughout this report.

In an actual implementation the input and output are a sequence of binary symbols, so a serial-to-parallel operation must be performed at the input to the parity computation section and a parallel-to-serial operation must be performed before the outputs are fed to the convolutional encoder. A description of a hardware implementation of the encoder and interleaver is given in a later section. The important point is that the entire code array of Figure 2.3.1 does not have to be stored, only the 2EIJ parity bits need to be stored.

2.3.2 Unscrambler and Decoder Storage Implementation

The major storage requirement in this concatenated coding scheme is in the receiver unscrambler where the sequence of received R-S symbols must be grouped into R-S words and the decoded R-S symbols must be arranged so that they are presented to the data sink in the proper sequence. Figure 2.3.3 illustrates a method of implementing this unscrambling operation. This implementation operates as follows.

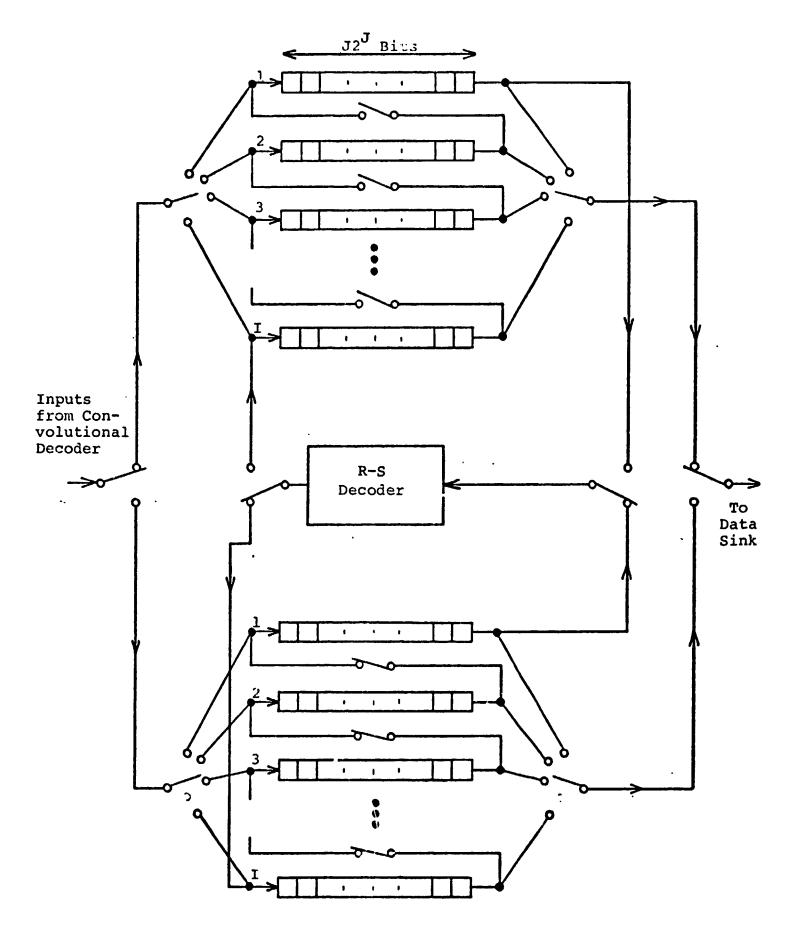


Figure 2.3.3. Unscrambler Implementation.

The first received symbol goes to the first register in the upper set of registers, the second rece_ved symbol to the second register, etc., until the Ith symbol is stored in the Ith register. Then the (I+1)th symbol is shifted into the first register and the procedure is continued until the registers are filled. Referring to the code array of Figure 2.3.1, it can be seen that this procedure puts the first I R-S words in the upper I registers. When these registers are filled, all of the switches are changel to their other position and the input symbols are shifted into the lower set of registers. Meanwhile the words in the upper register are shifted into the R-S decoder in the end-around manner shown and the corrected symbols are shif'ed back into the Ith register. After all the shifts have been completed, these registers contain a corrected version of the original I words. Then when the lower registers are filled, the positions of the switches are changed again and the words in the lower registers are shifted through the R-S decoder. The incoming symbols are shifted into the upper registers and the symbols shifted cut are the decoded properly sequenced symbols.

This implementation has the advantage that the R-S decoder is independent of the interleaver. Other interleaving procedures could reduce the storage nearly by half, but at the cost of more complex control and staggered access to the R-S decoder. Investigation of these procedures has shown them to be less cost effective than the present one.

2.3.3 Reed-Solomon Decoding Procedure

A R-S decoder can be implemented in four steps:

- Calculate the syndromes from the received sequence.
- 2. Use the Berlekamp Algorithm to find the error locator polynomial $\sigma(D)$.
- 3. Use a Chien Search to find the roots and hence the location of the errors.
- 4. Find the values of the errors.

The received word from the cutput of the inner decoder will be denoted

$$y(D) = \sum_{n=0}^{2^{J}-2} y_n D^n$$
 (2.3.3)

where y $1 \le i \le 2^J-1$, represents the i^{th} received symbol. If α is a primitive element which generates the field, then the syndromes can be calculated by

$$s_{i} = y(\alpha^{1+i})$$

$$= \left(\dots \left(y_{N-1} \alpha^{1+i} + y_{N-2} \right) \alpha^{1+i} + y_{N-3} \right) \alpha^{1+i} \dots + y_{0}$$

$$0 \le i \le 2E-1$$

$$(2.3.4)$$

where N is the symbol block length of 2^J-1. Thus each syndrome can be calculated by adding each successive received R-S symbol into an initially empty register, multiplying

the sum by α^{1+i} , and returning the result to the register awaiting the next received symbol. Figure 2.3.4 illustrates this procedure for the i-th syndrome.

The Berlekamp Iterative Algorithm for computing the error locator polynomial, $\sigma(D)$, from the syndromes is well documented by Berlekamp (Reference 11) and Massey (Reference 12). This algorithm is equivalent to synthesizing the minimum length shift register, over $GF(2^J)$, to generate S_0 , ..., S_{2E-1} . The resulting tap coefficients are the coefficients of the error locator polynomial. We will use the notation and follow the block diagram given in Reference 10, Figure 6.7.4.

The Chien search determines whether a given symbol is in error by evaluating the polynomial

$$\sigma(D) = 1 + \sigma^1 D + \dots + \sigma_E D^E$$
 (2.3.5)

at all inverse values of the primitive field element $\boldsymbol{\alpha}.$ If

$$\sigma\left(\alpha^{-n}\right) = 1 + \sum_{i=1}^{E} \sigma_{i} \left(\alpha^{-n}\right)^{i} \begin{cases} \neq 0, & \text{there is no error in the } \\ \text{nth symbol.} \end{cases}$$

$$= 0, & \text{there is an error in the } \\ \text{nth symbol.} \end{cases}$$

$$n = 1, 2, \dots, 2^{J-1-2E}$$

This search can be implemented as shown in Figure 6.7.5 of Reference 10.

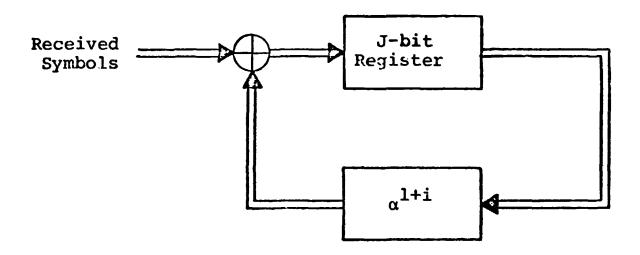


Figure 2.3.4 Procedure for Calculating the ith Syndrome.

After the error locations have been located with the Chien search, the error values must be calculated.

If less than or equal to E errors have occurred, the error values are given by the formula (Reference 10)

$$v_n = -\frac{A(\alpha^{-n})}{\sigma'(\alpha^{-n})}$$
 , $n=n_1$, n_2 , ..., n_E (2.3.6)

where n_i is the location of the i-th error

$$\sigma' \quad (D) = \sigma_1 + \sigma_3 D^2 + \sigma_5 D^4 + \dots + \sigma_F D^{F-1} \text{ where } F = \begin{cases} E, & \text{if } E \text{ odd} \\ E-1 & \text{if } E \text{ even} \end{cases}$$

$$(2.3.7)$$

and

$$A(D) = \left[S(D)\sigma(D)\right]_{0}^{E-1} = S_{0} + (S_{0}\sigma_{1} + S_{1})D + (S_{0}\sigma_{2} + S_{1}\sigma_{1} + S_{2})D^{2}$$

+...+
$$(s_0\sigma_{E-1}+s_1\sigma_{E-2}+\cdots+s_{E-1})D^{E-1}$$
 (2.3.8)

2.4 Part Software and Part Hardware Decoder Implementation

Several parts of the concatenated decoder are ideally suited to hardware implementation. As noted previously, the hardware implementation of constraint length 7 and 8 Viterbi decoders is relatively straightforward at speeds of less than 100 Kbps. Also, the unscrambler of Figure 2.3.3 can be easily implemented in hardware, but it would require a large amount of storage to implement in software. So these operations should clearly be done in hardware.

The R-S decoder can be efficiently implemented entirely in hardware or in part hardware and part software. The most efficient implementation will depend on the required speed and the code parameters.

Since the performance curves indicate that high rate R-S codes should be used, the slowest parts of the R-S decoding are steps 1 and 3 which have to be performed for each received symbol. This indicates that these steps should be performed in hardware. However, the interfacing problem in going from a software step 2 to a hardware step 3 and then back to a software step 4 may make it desirable to perform step 3 in software also.

To estimate the speeds of these three steps in the R-S decoder, we wrote a computer program to perform these steps. One of the problems in writing such a program is to find efficient ways of storing, adding, and multiplying field elements. Field elements over $GF(2^J)$ can be represented as

powers of a primitive field element α or as (J-1)- degree polynomials over GF(2). In this program we represented the field elements by J-bit integers with the bits corresponding to the coefficients in their polynomial representation. Field addition is accomplished with a bit-by-bit exclusive-OR operation.

Field multiplication and division are performed using field log and anti-log tables. The log table lists the corresponding power of α for the integer representations of the 2^J-1 non-zero field elements and the anti-log table lists the integer field element representations for the powers of α . With these tables multiplication/division of two non-zero field elements is accomplished by adding/subtracting their logs modulo (2^J-1) and looking up the resultant in the anti-log table.

Appendix A gives a listing of a Fortran and an assembly language version of this program. The decoding speeds of the various steps in the assembly language program are given in Table 2.4.1 for two sets of R-S code parameters.

These times are for the LINKABIT, Digital Scientific META-4 Computer with a one microsecond core memory cycle. Each time is based on the time to decode three arbitrarily chosen sets of E error locations and values. For the cases timed there was less than a 3% variation in these times. Table 2.4.1 lists the largest of the three times.

This table shows that, at least for the two R-S decoders timed, a serial software implementation of steps

	2 ⁸ -Symbol, 16-Error-Correcting R-S Code	orrecting	2 ⁷ -Symbol, 8-Error-Correcting R-S Code	Correcting
Step	Time Reguired To Decode 1000 Blocks in Seconds	Speed In Channel Kbps	Time Required To Decode 4000 Blocks in Seconds	Speed In Channel Kbps
2	47.0	43.4	50.9	8.69
m 4.	148.3 35.3	13.7 57.8	156.3 38.1	22.7 93.2
2 and 4 serially	82.3	24.8	0.68	40.0

Tab: 2.4.1 Software R-S Decoder Speeds.

2, 3, and 4 is too slow. If the Chien search (step 3) is performed in hardware and two minicomputers are used for steps 2 and 4, the decoding speed is limited by the speed of the Berlekamp Algorithm (step 2). Table 2.4.1 indicates that such an implementation would be satisfactory with lower speed requirements or for codes with smaller guaranteed error-correcting abilities.

This program could be speeded up by perhaps as much as a factor of 10 by using micro-programming techniques. If this were done, steps 2, 3, and 4 of the Berlekamp Algorithm could probably be serially implemented at up to 100 Kbps for the 2⁷-symbol 8-error-correcting code. However, a hardware implementation appears desirable for the more powerful 2⁸-symbol 16-error-correcting code.

2.5 Hardware Implementation

The present discussion on the hardware implementation will be limited to a system with a 2⁸-symbol* 16-error-correcting R-S code and an interleaver length of 16. In section 2.2 it was shown that for this alphabet size and desired range of error probabilities, 16 is the optimum number of correctable errors. The computer simulation also showed that in this case an interleaving length of 16 was sufficient for probabilities of error down to 10⁻⁸. Here we will show that this system can be hardware implemented at a reasonable cost. The design principles are the same for systems with different high rate, low speed R-S decoders.

First, we discuss the hardware implementation of some of the basic field operations. Then we present an outline of a hardware implementation with an estimate of the number of integrated circuit chips required to accomplish the operations.

2.5.1 Hardware Implementation of Field Operations

As in the software implementation, let the $GF(2^8)$ field elements be represented by polynomials of degree less than 8 in α . That is, a field element Y is represented as

^{*} This is a particularly convenient field size since then the field elements can be stored in 8-bit shift registers.

$$Y = \sum_{i=0}^{7} Y_i \alpha^i$$
 (2.5.1)

where the Y_i coefficients are binary numbers. Also, in order to obtain specific circuits for performing field multiplication, let the $GF(2^8)$ field be generated by a field element α with a primitive polynomial

$$M(D) = 1 + D^2 + D^3 + D^4 + D^8 \qquad (2.5.2)$$

The only criterion used in selecting this primitive polynomial is that it have minimum weight which in this case is 5.

One method of multiplying two non-zero field elements is to look up their logarithms in a log table, add the logs modulo 255, and look up the result in an anti-log table.

Each log and anti-log table look-up can be implemented with a 256 x 8 read-only memory (ROM) and the addition can be implemented with two chips. In general, to multiply two arbitrary field elements a test would have to be made to determine if either were zero and, if this were the case, the output would be set to zero. Thus, excluding control circuitry, 7 chips are required*.

^{*}This is reduced when a variable element is multiplied by a fixed element (such as in polynomial evaluation where the fixed element is a polynomial coefficient) since then we can simply store the logarithm of the fixed element rather than the element itself, thus avoiding one ROM, and if the fixed element is non-zero, one zero test chip.

Another method (Reference 11) of multiplying two field elements, U and V, is illustrated in Figure 2.5.1. Initially the two field elements to be multiplied are stored in the U and V registers and the Z register is set to zero. The U register is wired to multiply by α , the V register is a storage register which can be shifted to the right, and Z is an accumulator register. The multiplier operates as follows. Depending on the lowest bit of V, U is either added or not added into Z. Then the U and V registers are shifted and the process is repeated. After 8 steps Z contains $\sum_{i=0}^{7} V_i (U \alpha^i) \quad , \text{ the desired product.}$

Figure 2.5.2 gives an implementation of this field multiplication procedure. In this and the proceeding implementation diagrams, L denotes low, H high, and X irrelevant. Excluding control circuitry, this implementation requires 8 chips. However, the chips required here are less costly than those in the previous implementation.

The best way of obtaining the inverse of a field element is to look up the answer in a table containing the 2^8-1 inverses. This can be implemented with one 256 x 8 ROM.

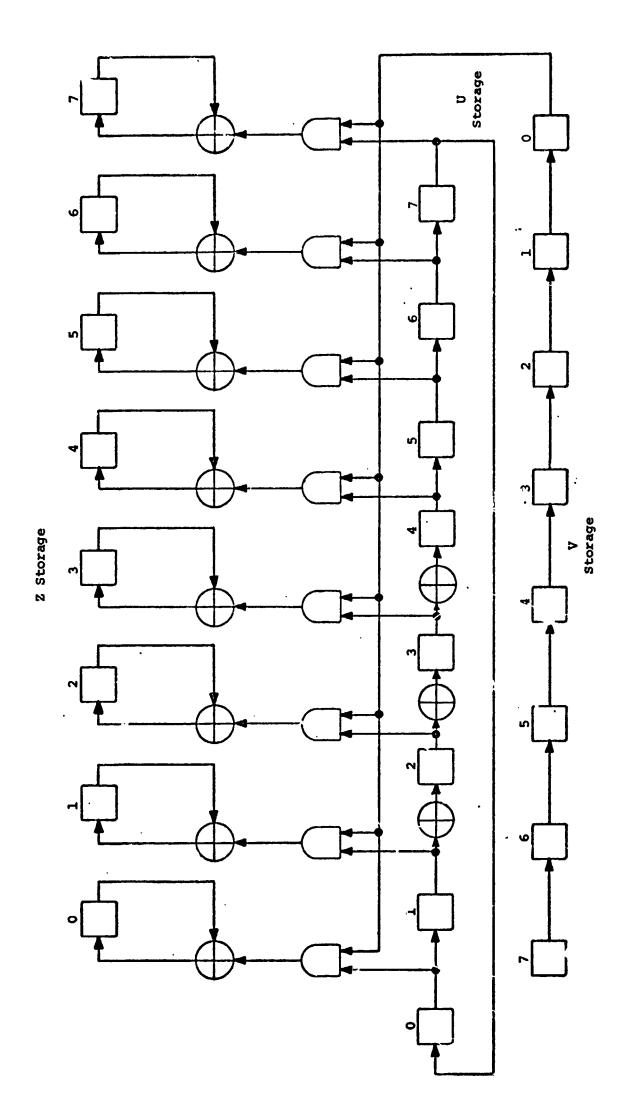
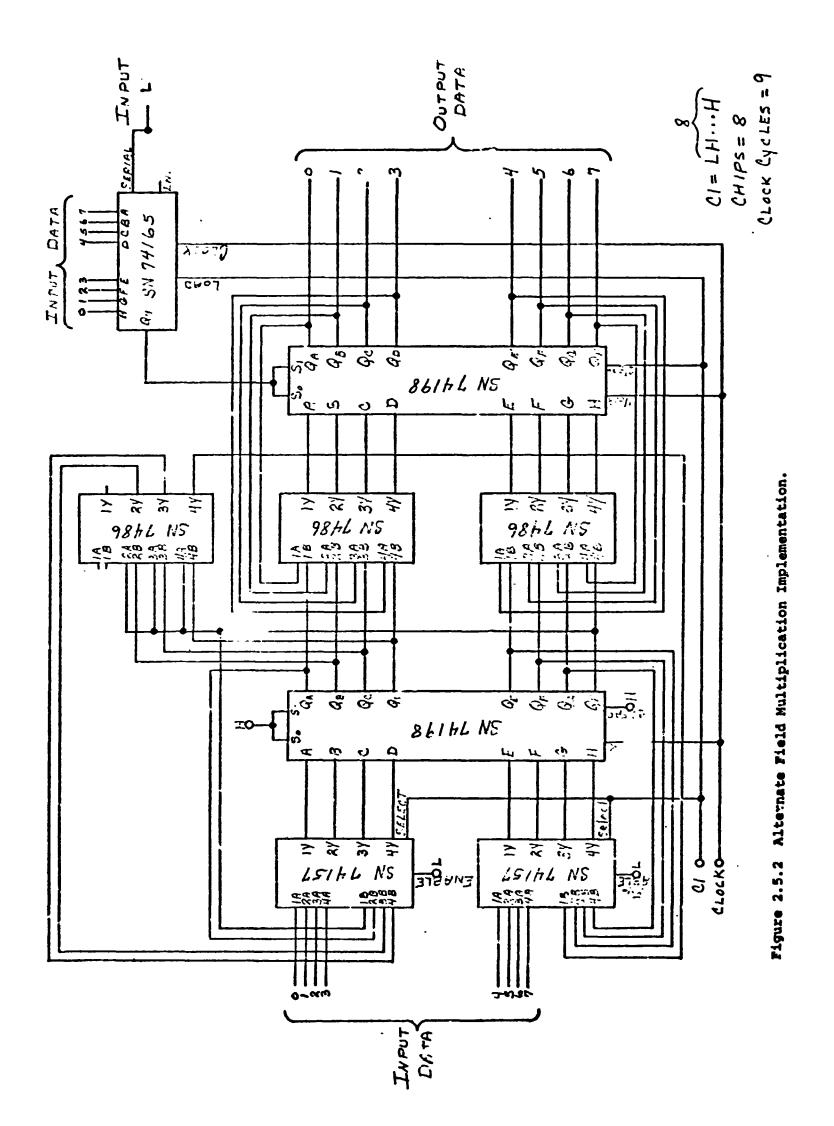


Figure 2.5.1 Alternate Field Multiplication Procedure.



2.5.2 Hardware Encoder and Interleaver Design

In section 2.3.1 we described the general procedure for implementing the encoder and interleaver. Figure 2.5.3 gives an outline of a hardware implementation of this procedure. Random-access memories (RAM's) provide the parity symbol storage and a read-only memory (ROM) provides the storage for the logs of the generator polynomial coefficients. The main difference between this implementation and the procedure shown in Figure 2.3.2 is that here the multiplications are performed in series instead of in parallel as indicated in Section 2.3.1. That is, for each input symbol, 32 cycles through this circuitry are required to update all of the parity symbols for that R-S word. Then the RAM selects the next set of 32 parity symbols and the same procedure is repeated for the next input symbol. This serial computation procedure, of course, takes longer than the parallel procedure, but it is fast enough to obtain the required coding speeds and it has far fewer parts.

Above each block in this diagram is an estimate of the number of TTL chips required to accomplish the operation. The composite RAM shown requires four 1024×1 RAM chips and must be clocked twice to obtain the desired 8-bit output. The field multiplication is performed using the logarithmic procedure described in the previous section. However, the complexity of this multiplier is reduced a little by storing the logarithms of the g_i coefficients instead of their polynomial representations. If any coefficient is zero,

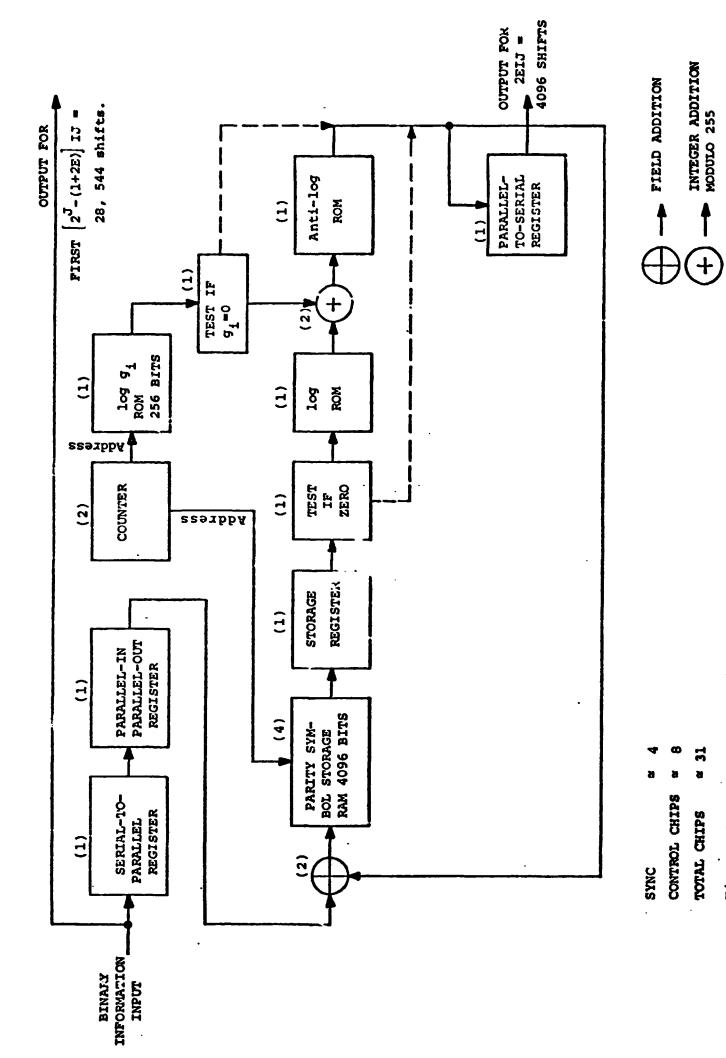


Figure 2.5.3. Outer Encoder and Interleaver Implementation.

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the value 255 can be substituted since the largest logarithm is 254. The dotted lines indicate that if either multiplier input is zero, the output is zero.

This diagram does not include the control or synchronization circuitry. It is estimated that 8 and 4 chips, respectively, are required to accomplish these operations.

2.5.3 Synchronization Implementation

As described in Section 2.3, the Viterbi decoder provides inner code synchronization and phase ambiguity resolution and the IJ = 128 bit sequence, consisting of 16 superchannel symbols, is used to obtain block code array synchronization. At the moderate data rates required here, the code array synchronization can be implemented with a simple correlation detector. That is, for each received superchannel bit the detector correlates the 128-bit received sequence, terminating at that bit, with a locally generated copy of the synchronization sequence and compares the output with a threshold to determine the starting bit of the code array. The most recent 128 superchannel bits can be stored in a RAM, the synchronization sequence can be generated with 2 chips, and the correlator, consisting of an exclusive-OR circuit and a counter, can be implemented with a little over 2 chips. Adding a few chips for control circuits, a total of about 8 chips are required.

This, of course, requires that for each bit time (> 10 µsec.) the locally generated synchronization sequence be shifted and modulo-2 added to the stored most recently received 128 bits. Thus, the synchronization sequence must be shifted at a speed of up to 12.8 MHz, which is well within the capabilities of the TTL logic.

2.5.4 Hardware Unscrambler Implementation

For the J=8, I=16 system being considered, the unscrambler of Figure 2.3.3 requires 2¹⁶= 65,536 bits of storage. The best way of implementing this is to use 16 4096 x 1 MOS RAM's. Dynamic MOS shift registers could also be used, but they would have to be recirculated at the lower data rates. Using the MOS RAM's, 16 chips are required for the storage requirements and it is estimated that an additional 14 chips are required for the control and rather formidable addressing circuitry. Thus a total of 30 chips are required.

2.5.5 Hardware Reed-Solomon Decoder Design

A sketch of the overall design of a R-S decoder is shown in Figure 2.5.4. Typically the decoder will be computing the syndromes for one word while the remaining decoding steps are performed for the previous word. The Chien searcher checks each symbol to see if an error has occurred in the symbol about to be shifted out of the buffer. If so, the error value is computed and the symbol is corrected.

A timing diagram of the R-S decoding operation is given in Figure 2.5.5. The lines in this figure indicate the relative amore's of time and the sequence of operations in the Reed-Solomon decoding procedure.

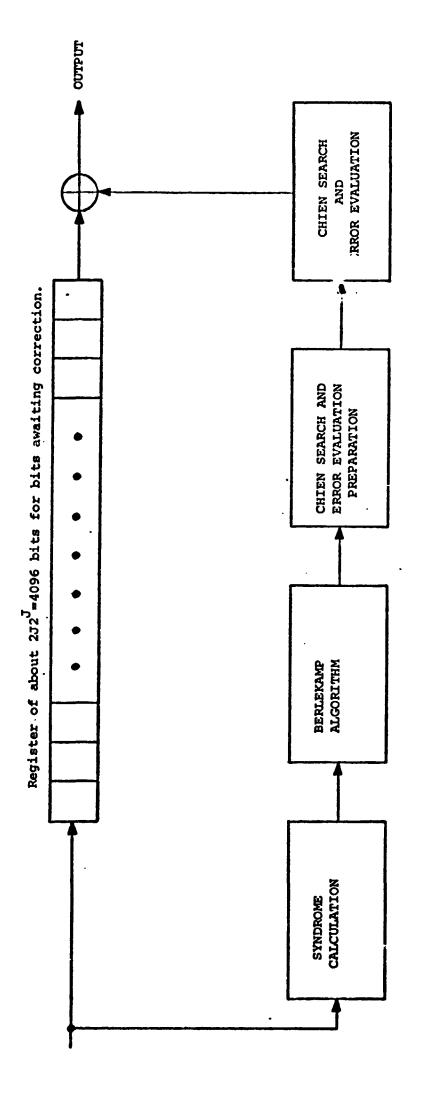


Figure 2.5.4. Reed-Solomon Decoder Block Diagram.

- Chien Search and Error Evaluation Preparation Chien Search and Error Evaluation Berlekamp Algorithm

Syndrome Calculation

Figure 2.5.5 Reed-Solomon Decoder Timing Diagram.

2.5.5.1 Syndrome Calculation

As with the encoder implementation, the number of chips required to implement the syndrome calculation can be greatly reduced by using a serial instead of a parallel implementation. Figure 2.5.6 shows a serial implementation of this procedure. Referring to Figure 2.3.4, the counter of Figure 2.5.6 generates the logs of the α^{i} elements and the lower RAM contains the storage for the syndromes being calculated. During the period immediately following the first received symbol of the word, the feedback is removed and in 32 serial steps the first term of each of the syndromes is written into the lower RAM. When the remaining symbols in the word are received, the feedback is used to modify the syndromes as shown in Figure 2.3.4. Again 32 steps per received symbol are required to modify all of the syndromes. On the last series of modifications, i.e., after the last symbol of the word is received, the syndromes are also stored in the upper RAM's for use in the other decoding steps.

The estimated number of TTL chips required to implement the various steps and the control circuits are shown.

2.5.5.2 Berlekamp Algorithm Implementation

Reference 10 provides a good description of the Berlekamp Iterative Algorithm. Basically the algorithm synthesizes he shortest length shift register which will generate the syndrome sequence. The resulting tap connections are the

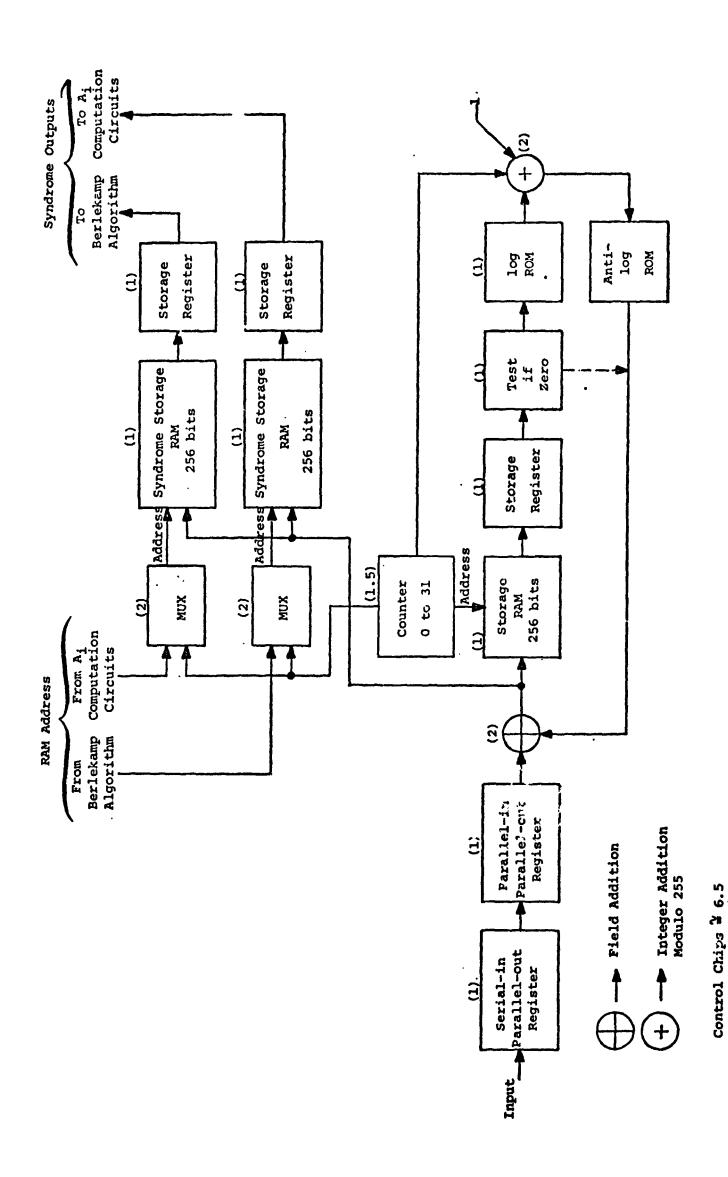


Figure 2.5.6 Syndrome Caltulation.

Total Chips 2 27

coefficients of the error locator polynomial. As described in Reference 10 and illustrated in Figure 6.7.4 of Reference 10, at each iteration the algorithm computes the discrepancy, d_n , between the next syndrome and the next output of the present shift register. If this discrepancy is not zero, a new set of tap connections is generated.

Figure 2.5.7 gives a simplified block diagram of the algorithm and Figures 2.5.8 and 2.5.9 outline an implementation of the two main parts of this block diagram.

In Figure 2.5.8 the Rl RAM contains the present set of shift register tap connections and the \mathbf{d}_n register accumulates the terms of the next discrepancy as indicated.

The diagram of Figure 2.5.9 illustrates the operation of the main processor in the notation of Figure 6.7.4 of Reference 10. At each iteration this processor checks to see if the next discrepancy is zero. If it is, this processor merely shifts the words in the R3 RAM one address location and inserts a "0" symbol. If the next discrepancy is not zero, a new set of shift register tap sequences must be computed. This is accomplished by modifying each of the 16 words in the RAM's as shown and then shifting the words in the R3 RAM one address location and inserting a "0" or a "1" symbol, depending on the polarity of $n-2 l_n$. Also if $d_n \neq 0$ and $n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, l_n and $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$, $l_n \neq 0$ and $l_n \geq 2 l_n$.

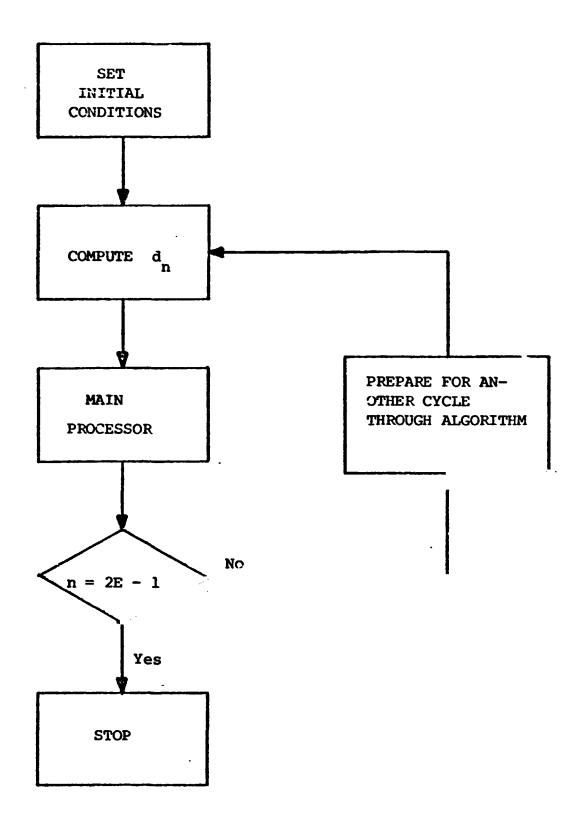
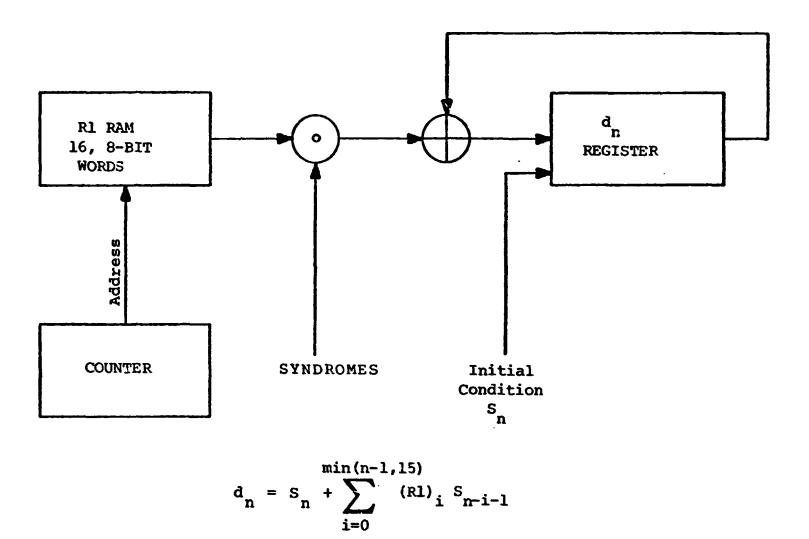


Figure 2.5.7. Berlekamp Algorithm Block Diagram.



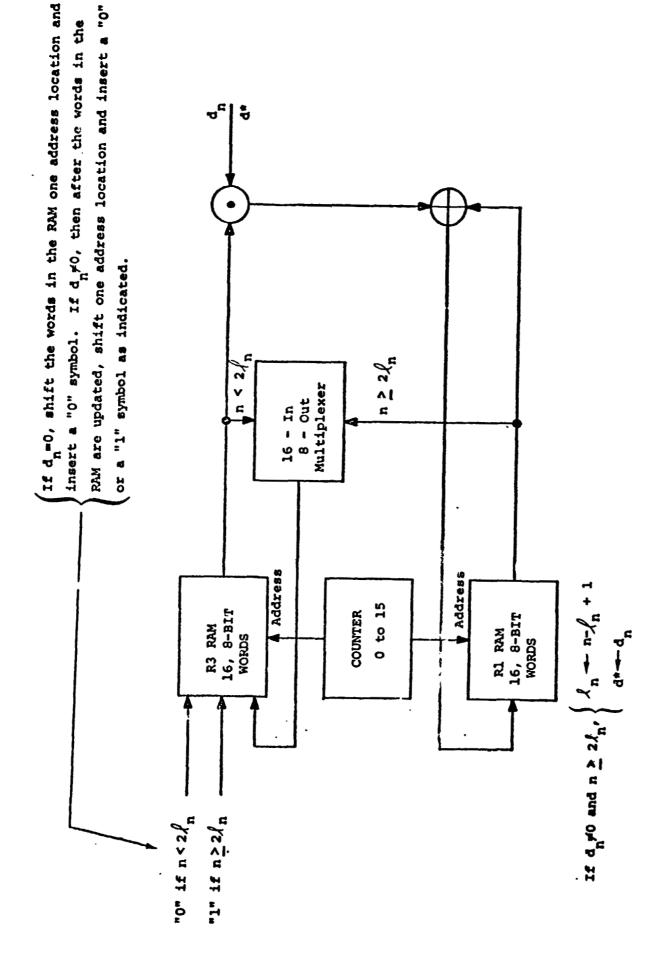


Figure 2.5.9. Block Diagram of the Main Processor of the Berlekamp Algorithm.

Figure 2.5.10 sketches an implementation of this algorithm. This implementation uses the procedures outlined in Figures 2.5.8 and 2.5.9 and adds circuitry to implement some of the other operations.

The dotted line from the $d_n=0$ tester indicates that when $d_n=0$, control is shifted to the R3 RAM as described in Figure 2.5.9. The other dotted lines indicate that, as before, when a multiplier input is zero, the output is set to zero.

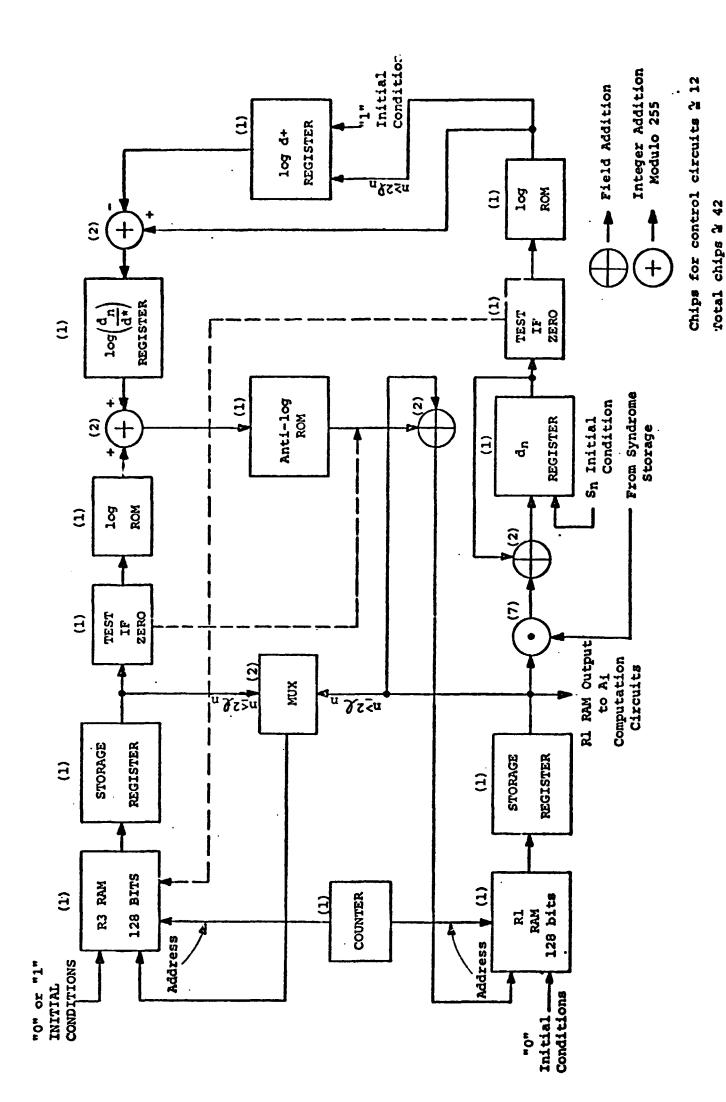


Figure 2.5.10 Berlekamp Algorithm Implementation.

2.5.5.3 Chien Search and Error Evaluation Preparation

The Chien search and error evaluation preparation step stores and, when necessary, computes the coefficients of the A, σ , and σ' polynomials so that they can be used efficiently in the Chien search and error evaluation procedure. The coefficients of the σ polynomial, σ_i , are computed with the Berlekamp Algorithm and, as shown in Equation 2.3.7, the coefficients of the σ' polynomial, σ'_i , are equal to σ_{i+1} for i even and zero otherwise. So this step merely stores these coefficients so that they can be readily accessed by the Chien search and error evaluation circuits.

The coefficients of the A polynomial must be computed. They can be computed directly from the formula (2.3.8) or their calculation can be incorporated into the Berlekamp Algorithm (Reference 10). In this case, the direct approach appears to be less complex to implement. Figure 2.5.11 gives an outline of an implementation using this approach. This implementation accumulates the sum defining each coefficient in the temporary A_i storage register and then stores the result in the A_i RAM.

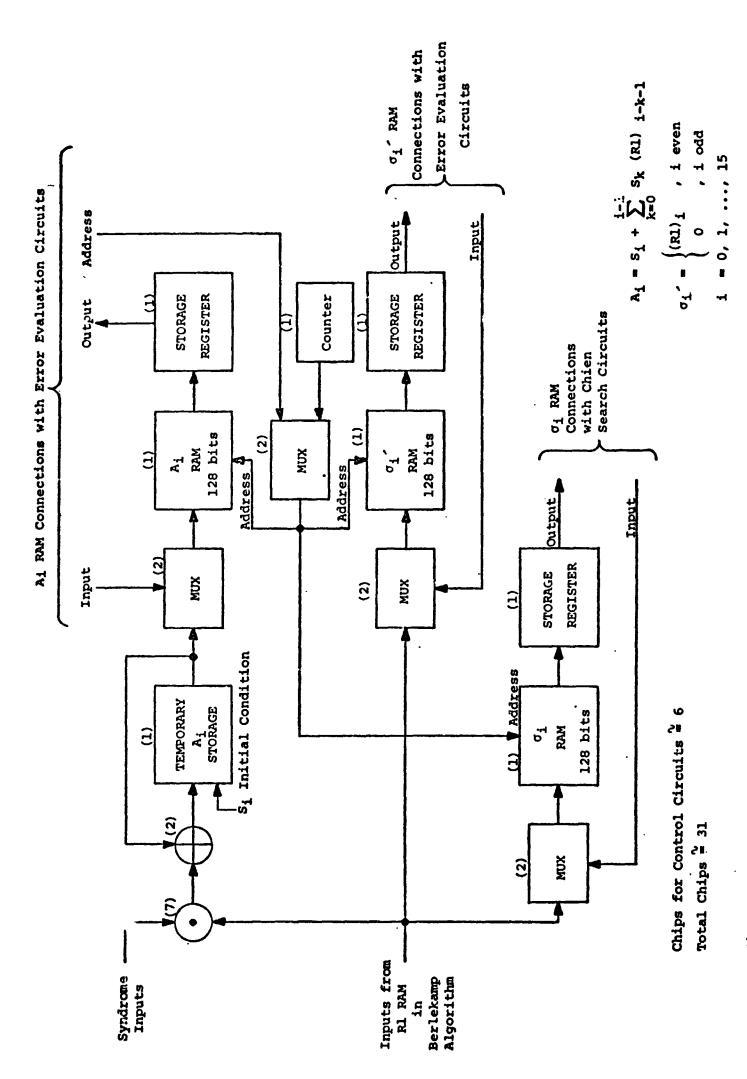


Figure 2.5.11 Chien Search and Error Evaluation Preparation.

2.5.5.4 Chien Search and Frror Evaluation

As described in section 2.3.3 the Chien search determines whether a given symbol is in error by computing $\sigma(\alpha^{-n})$. If this quantity is nonzero, the n^{th} symbol is said to be correct. Otherwise an error of value $A(\alpha^{-n})/\sigma'(\alpha^{-n})$ is said to have occurred in that symbol.

Figure 2.5.12 gives an implementation of this procedure. This implementation performs the Chien search and evaluates the A and σ' polynomials in parallel, first for n = N-1, then for n = N-2, and so forth, where $N = 2^J-1=255$. In the first step the circuitry accumulates

$$\sigma\left(\alpha^{-(N-1)}\right) = 1 + \sum_{i=0}^{15} \sigma_{i+1} \alpha^{i}\alpha$$

$$A\left(\alpha^{-(N-1)}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{15} A_i \alpha^{i}$$

and

$$\sigma'\left(\alpha^{-(N-1)}\right) = \sum_{i=0}^{15} \sigma_i \alpha^i$$

in the σ , A, and σ storage registers, respectively. Then the NOR gate checks to see if the first received symbol, y_{N-1} , is correct. That is, it checks to see if $\sigma(\sigma^{-(N-1)})$ is nonzero. If so, the output AND gate produces a sequence of 8 zero bits. If the NOR gate output is high, an error is

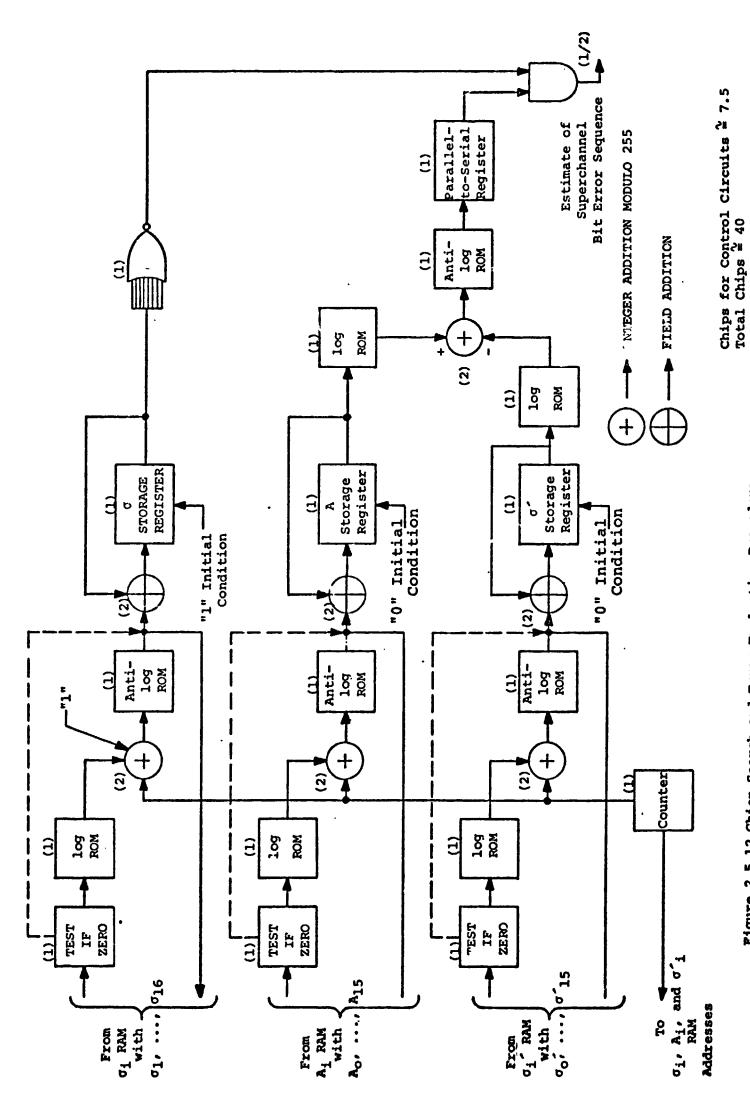


Figure 2.5.12 Chien Search and Error Evaluation Procedure.

indicated. In this case $A(\alpha^{-(N-1)})/\sigma'(\alpha^{-(N-1)})$ is formed as shown and this error sequence is selected as the output.

At the k^{th} step this implementation evaluates the σ , A, and σ' polynomials at $\alpha^{-(N-k)}$, checks to see if the k^{th} received symbol is in error, computes the value of the error if there is one, and outputs an estimate of the superchannel bit error sequence corresponding to the k^{th} received symbol.

2.5.6 Hardware Implementation Summary

Table 2.5.1 summarizes the number of chips required to hardware implement the various operations in this concatenated coding system. This table shows that most of this system can be implemented with TTL logic. MOS chips are used only in the unscrambler and in the delay line storage during R-S decoding, where large amounts of storage are required. A total of 17, 4096 x 1 MOS RAM's are used for these storage purposes.

The table shows that the decoder for this concatenated coding system can be implemented with only a little over twice the number of chips as the basic Viterbi decoder. That is, it requires a few more chips than a K=9, R=1/3 Viterbi decoder. However, this concatenated coding system only requires 1.93 and 2.18 dB to achieve bit error probabilities of 10^{-4} and 10^{-7} , respectively, while the K=9, R=1/3 Viterbi decoder system requires about 2.6 and 4.2 dB. To obtain the same performance as this concatenated coding system, a considerably longer and exponentially more complex Viterbi decoder system would be required.

FUNCTION	Number of TTL chips	Number of MOS chips	Total Number of chips
R-S Encoder, Sync Circuit, and Interleaver	31	0	31
Viterbi Encoder	v	0	v
Total Encoder	37	0	3.7
Viterri Decoder	150	o	150
Concetenated Code Array Sync	ω	0	80
Unscrambler	4.1	16	30
Stores during R-S Decoding	4	н	ĸ
Syndrome Calculation	27	0	27
n:lekamp Algorithm	4 2	0	4 2
ien Search and Error Evaluation Preparation	31	0	31
an Search and Error Evaluation	40	0	04
otal for R-S Decoder without Sync	144	H	145
Additional Chips Required to Convert a Viterbi Decoder to a Concatenated System Decoder	166	17	183
Total Decoder	316	1.7	333

Summary of the estimated number of chips required to hardware implement a concatenated coding system with a K=8, R=1/3 convolutional inner code and a J=8, E=16 R-S outer code with I=16 levels of interleaving. Table 2.5.1

3.0 Hybrid Bootstrap Decoding

Performance results for hybrid bootstrap decoding (16,17,18) based on extensive simulations by Morman are presented in two papers (Refs. 14, 15). The design considered in Section 3.2 follows these papers very closely, since alternate schemes have not been adequately tested. We are particularly interested in the rate 1/3, one group, soft-decision decoder without multiple processing, which achieves performance comparable to that of concatenated coding. Performance is reviewed in Section 3.1 and an implementation based on MECL 10,000 logic is presented in Section 3.2. Suggestions and comments on other approaches are contained in Section 3.3. A careful comparison and evaluation of hybrid and concatenated coding is contained in Section 4.

3.1 Performance Results

In hybrid decoding, the principal source of failure is block erasure due to inadequate time to decode. Undetected errors also occur. An undetected output bit error rate of 2.5×10^{-6} near $R_{\rm comp}$ is cited in Ref. 14 for the rate 1/2 code. It is anticipated, however, that with proper choice of parameters and during operation at rates below $R_{\rm comp}$, that is, with $E_{\rm b}/N_{\rm o}$ of 1.5 dB or higher, the undetected error rate will be significantly lower than 10^{-6} and not a significant cause of system degradation.

An erasure occurs whenever the number of computations required to decode a block exceeds the number of computations that can be performed by the decoder during the time allotted for decoding the block. In real-time decoding, this number is approximately equal to the computational speed of the decoder times the time required to transmit one block. Buffering external to the decoder will permit additional time to be devoted to difficult blocks, beyond that required to transmit the block, but this effect is not major unless very large buffers (and delays), or off-line processing, is provided.

Fig. 3.1.1 is an extrapolation of the results of Fig. 1 cf Pef. 15, the normalized computational distribution for a rate 1/3, 7-track bootstrap decoder. These curves may be used to approximate system performance as follows. A decoder capable of performing D computations per second can perform $L_T = D \times 3000/R$ computations during the time required to transmit a block of 3000 bits at an information bit rate of R bits per second. The normalized total number of computations is obtained by dividing L_T by the number of information bits, yielding

$$\mu = L_{T}/3000 = D/R.$$

Thus, the normalized total number of computations per block is just the computational speed factor, μ , defined as the ratio of the computational rate of the decoder to the information bit rate. For a decoder capable of 15 megacomputations

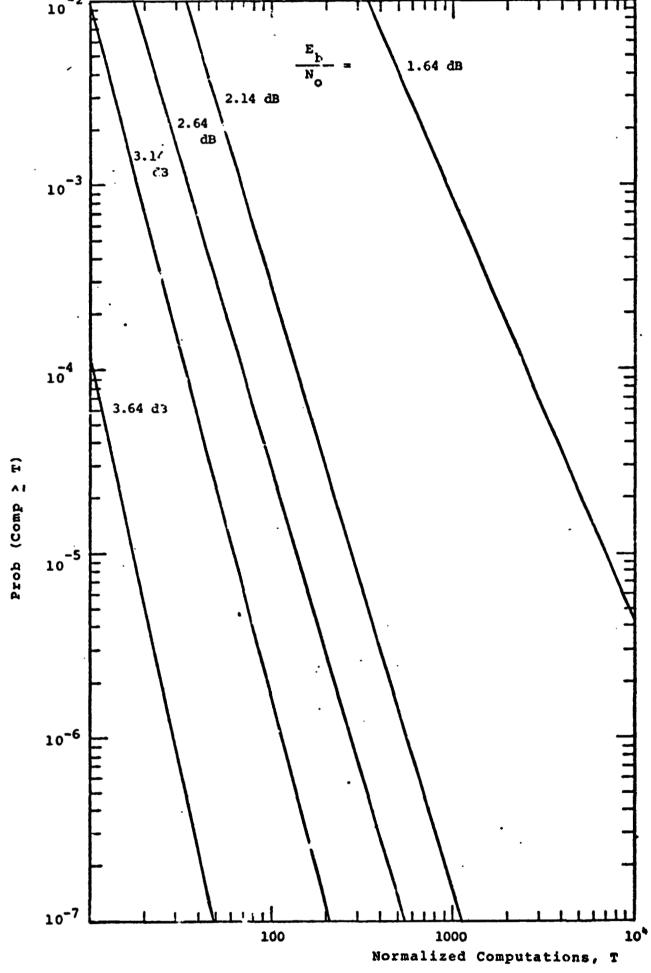


Figure 3.1.1 Extrapolated Distributions, Octal Hybrid Sequential Decoder.

per second (MCPS) μ = 150 at a rate of 100 Kbps and μ = 1500 at a data rate of 10 Kbps. The curves of Fig.3.1.1 then indicate an erasure rate of 7 x 10⁻⁵ at an E_b/N_o of approximately 2.2 dB at 100 Kbps and an erasure rate of 3 x 10⁻⁴ at an E_b/N_o of approximately 1.7 dB at 10 Kbps.

Curves of erasure vs. E_b/N_O at data rates of 10 and 100 Kbps assuming a 15 MCPS decoder are presented in Fig. 3.1.2. It should be noted that these curves are based on rather uncertain extrapolation and thus are subject to considerable inaccuracy. The performance of a 16 error correcting concatenated Reed-Solomon Viterbi decoder is also shown in Fig. 3.1.2 as a curve of block error probability vs. E_b/N_O . The hybrid decoder operating at 10 Kbps appears to have a slight performance advantage down to block error or erasure probabilities of 10^{-7} . At lower speed factors, hybrid decoding appears to suffer badly. In particular, at 100 Kbps, hybrid decoding is quite inferior for block erasure probabilities less than 10^{-4} .

The reason for this inferior performance is not clear. Fig. 2 of Ref. 15 shows an unexplained decrease in Pareto slope, α , for the rate 1/3 code as $E_{\rm b}/N_{\rm o}$ is increased from 2 to 3 dB. It is this decrease that shows up as inferior hybrid decoding performance at 100 Kbps above 2 dB. Whether this is a basic problem, a quirk in the implementation, or overly ambitious extrapolation remains to be explained.

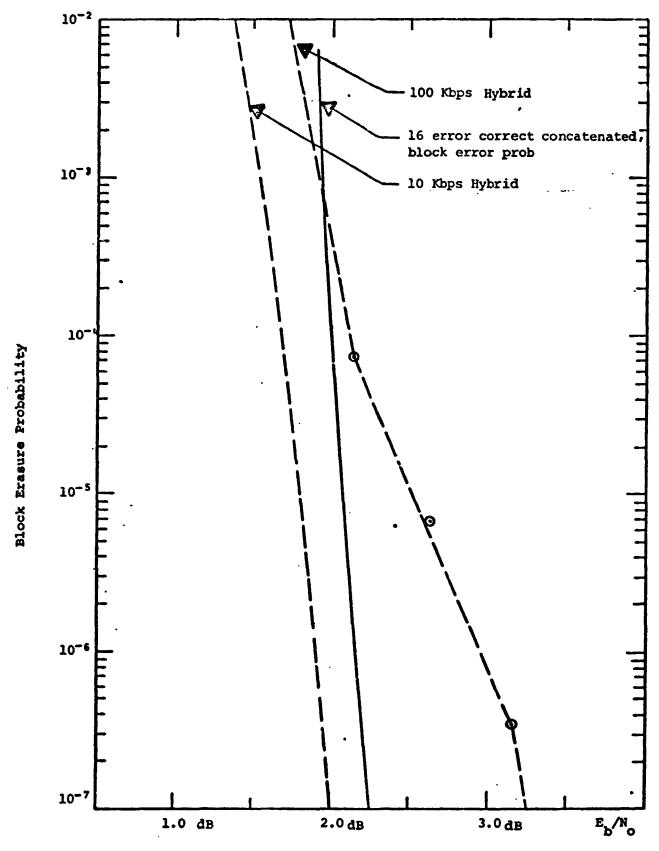


Figure 3.1.2 Erasure Probability for 15 MCPS Hybrid Sequential Decoder, Rate 1/3, Octal Channel

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It is clear that there are significant advantages to high speed factor. The design for a soft decision, rate 1/3 hybrid decoder is discussed in Section 3.2. A faster computation rate does not presently appear to be practical.

3.2 Hybrid Bootstrap Sequentia: Decoder Implementation

A design of a hybrid sequential decoder, using the algorithm presented in Ref. 14, is described in this section. A block diagram of the decoder is shown in Fig. 3.2.1. When the decoder completes the decoding of a block, the received symbols for the next block are loaded into the decoder memory while the decoded data from the previous block is being read out. Simultaneous with received symbols being loaded, the state track is generated and loaded into the decoder memory.

Three state bits are generated from the received symbols for each of the 512 words in the block. The state bits are computed as follows: the first state bit of word n is equal to the even parity of the sign bits of received symbol one for each of the seven tracks in word n; the second state bit is equal to the even parity of the sign bits for received symbol two, etc. Three more state bits in word n are the binary representation of KLEFT, the number of tracks that have not yet decoded past word n. When the memory is first loaded, KLEFT is set equal to seven in all 512 words. The final bit of the state, referred to as the alternate branch state bit, is particular to the track presently being decoded and is set equal to one on a forward move

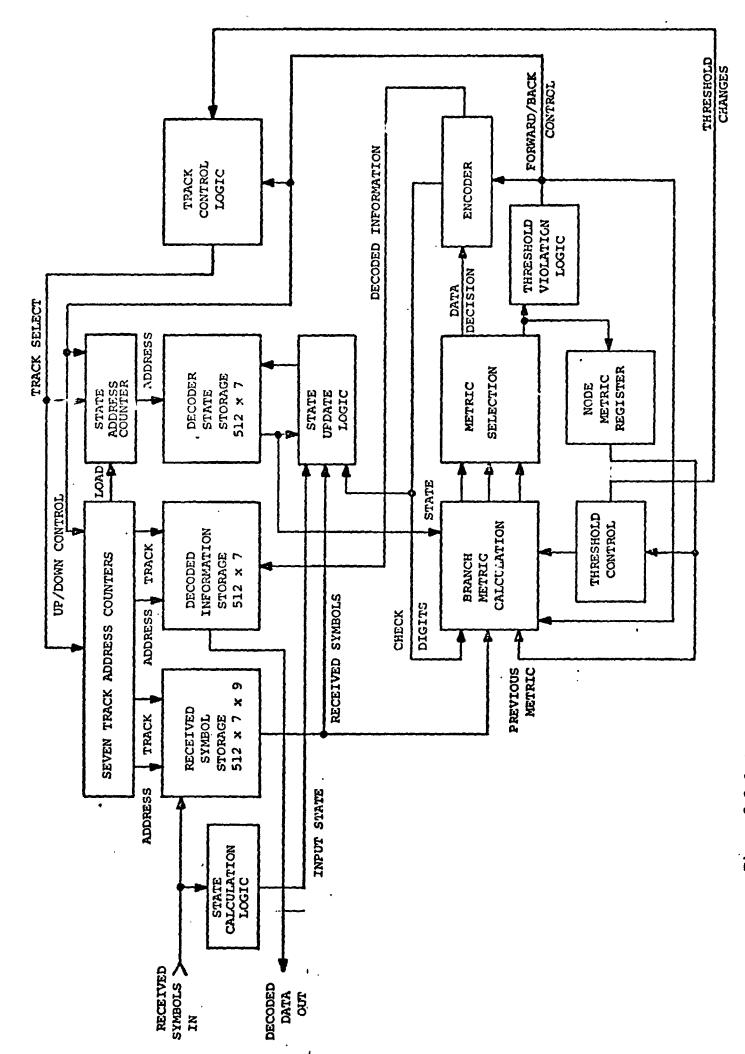


Figure 3.2.1 HYBRID BOOTSTRAP SEQUENTIAL DECODER.

along the best branch from a node, and to 0 on a forward move on the alternate branch.

3.2.1 Decoder Memory Organization

A total memory size of 512 words is required. The total memory is divided into three sections; one for received symbol storage, one for information bit storage, and one for decoder state storage. The received symbol and the information bit sections are divided into seven independent tracks. Each track has its own address counter. The received symbol and information bit storage for a given track share the same address counter. The state memory is addressed by an address counter which is loaded from the track address counter of the track currently being decoded.

The received symbol storage requires a nine-bit word for each track for a total of 512 x 7 x 9 = 32,256 bits of storage. The information bit storage requires only one bit per track for a total of 512 x 7 = 3,584 bits. The state memory has only a single track. A seven-bit word is required for a total of 3,584 bits. Thus, the total storage required is 39,424 bits. The cycle time must be approximately 50-60 ns. It appears that these requirements can best be met with the Fairchild 95410, 256-bit ECL memory. A total of 154 of these devices are required to build this memory.

While the decoder is computing the present node, the memory reads out the received symbols and state bits for the next computation. Since the decoder may move either forward or backward, the received sympols and state bits for both the next node and the previous node must be provided.

3.2.2 Decoding Logic

Since the decoding logic speed determines the overall computation rate, it has been worked out in some detail. A block diagram of the decoding logic is shown in Fig. 3.2.2. The decoding logic has two modes, the look-forward mode and the look-back mode. The decoder is in the look-forward mode if the present node was arrived at by a forward step. Otherwise, the decoder is in the look-back mode.

The node metric, or MT, register contains the cumulative metric minus the cumulative threshold for the present node. A 16-bit register for use with symbol metric values quantized to 12 bits is assumed, based on simulations performed by L. Hofman and summarized in Fig. 3.2.3. The 2 curves encompass a range of choices of metric quantization and of KLEFT. Hofman notes that, by extrapolation, a 16-bit MT register can be expected to overflow about once every 5 x 10³³ blocks, whereas a 14-bit register could be expected to overflow every 5 x 10⁴ blocks when used with 12-bit symbol metrics. The choice of 16 bits thus appears to be reasonable. Symbol metric quantization is discussed in connection with Fig. 3.2.4.

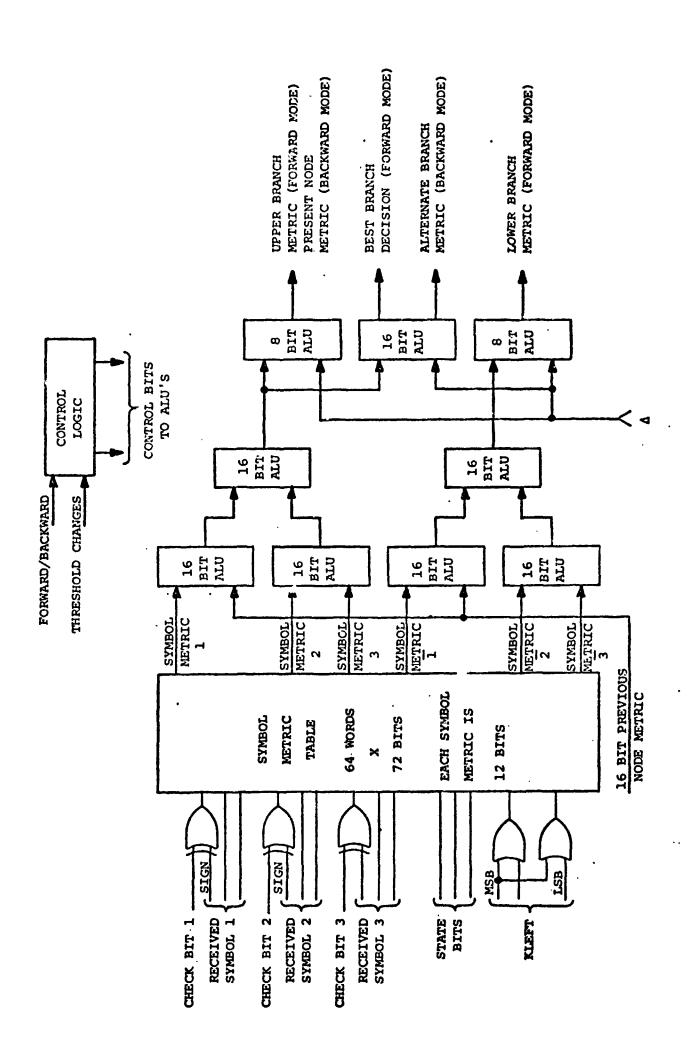


Figure 1.2.2 Hybrid Bootstrap Sequential Decoder Branch.

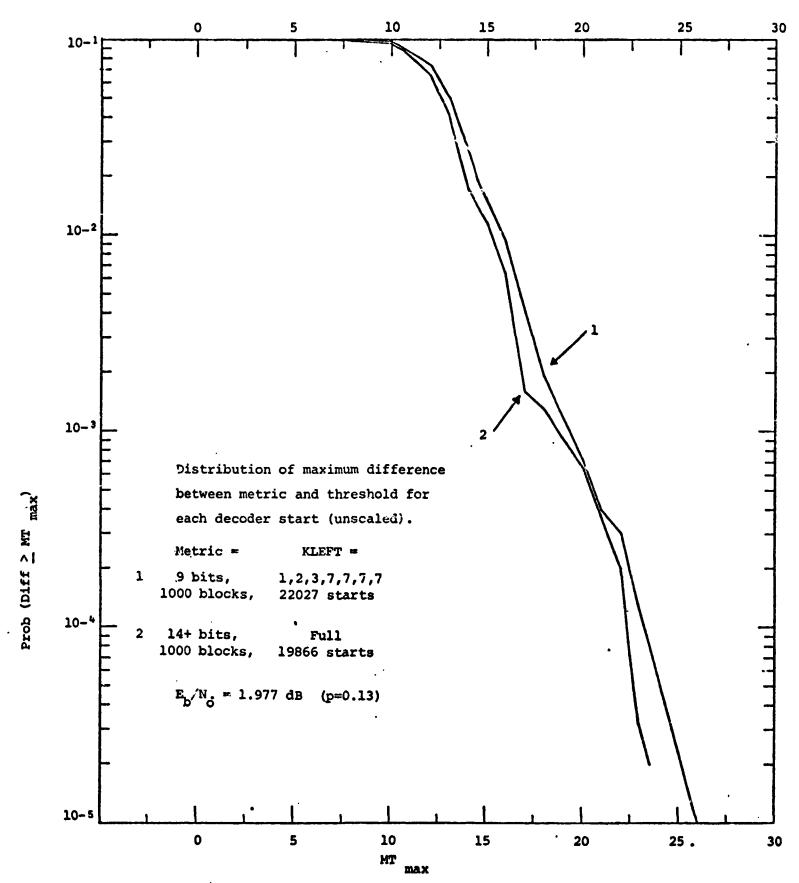


Figure 3.2.3. Complementary Distribution Function for MT for rate 1/2, inner code, 7-track Hybrid Bootstrap Decoder.

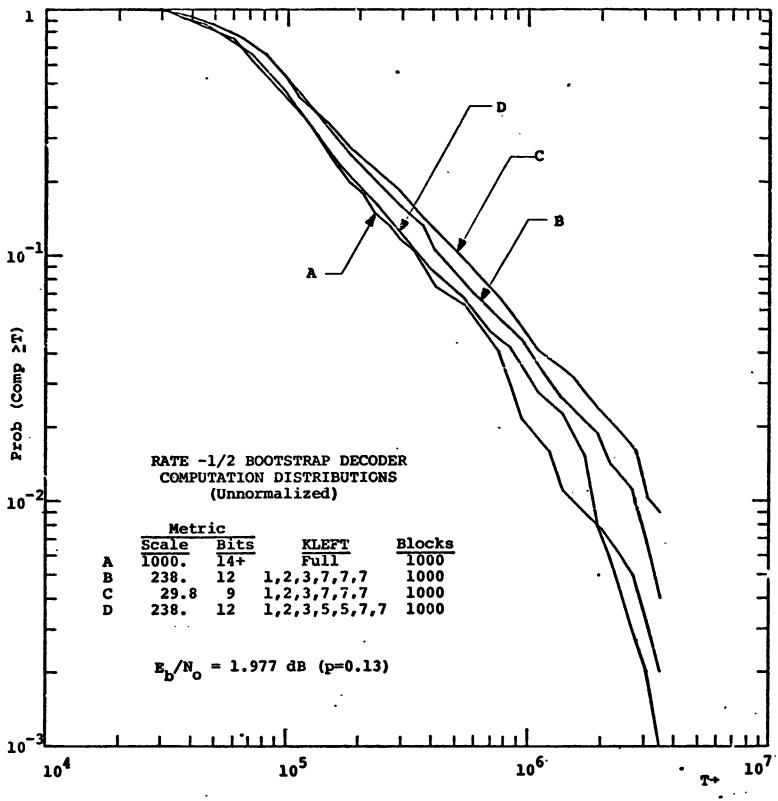


Figure 3.2.4 Sensitivity of Bootstrap Decoder Computations to Quantization of Metrics and of KLEFT.

The MT register is set to zero when starting or resuming the decoding of a track. When in the forward mode, the metric calculator simultaneously computes the metric for the two successor nodes to the present node by adding the three symbol metrics for each branch to MT. The best of the two metrics is tested for threshold violation (negative value of MT). If threshold is violated, the decoder steps back to the previous mode. Otherwise, the decoder steps forward, sets the alternate branch state bit to 1, and tests the best metric for a possible threshold tightening. The metric MT is decreased by Δ if the previous metric was less than Δ and the best new metric is greater than or equal to Δ . The resulting metric is then stored in the metric register and the decoder steps forward on the best branch.

In the back-up mode, the metric of the present branch and the alternate branch is calculated simultaneously. If the present metric is below threshold, then the threshold is loosened by adding Δ to MT and the decoder steps forward on the best branch. If this is not the case, and if the alternate branch available state bit is 1, then the metric of the alternate branch is tested for threshold violation. If the alternate branch metric is above threshold, then the decoder steps forward to the alternate branch, setting the alternate branch available state bit to 0; otherwise, the decoder steps back.

The branch metrics are computed from the symbol metrics and the previous node metric. The only practical way of generating the symbol metrics is by storing the values in three identical look-up tables, one for each symbol. Each look-up table is composed of six 256-bit MECL 10,000 ROM's and is addressed by three bits. These devices (soon to become available) will have access times of about 17 nanoseconds. Each symbol look-up table provides two sets of symbol metrics; one for the upper (0) branch and one for the lower (1) branch. Each symbol metric is stored to 12-bit precision. Initial simulations by Hofman indicate that with appropriate choice of KLEFT quantization to 2 bits, metric table quantization to 12 bits has negligible impact on computational requirements. A more extensive simulation appears to be indicated, however, before parameter choices are frozen. Hofman's results are presented in Fig. 3.2.4. Although obtained for a rate 1/2 code, no differences are anticipated for a rate 1/3 code.

In forward mode, the two branch metrics are formed by summing the symbol metrics with the contents, MT, of the node metric register. These two results are then subtracted from each other to determine the larger of the two. Threshold changes are obtained by adding or subtracting Δ from both the upper and lower branch metrics while they are being compared.

In the backward mode, the present node metric is determined by subtracting the upper branch metric from MT. The alternate node metric is computed by adding the alternate branch metric to the present node metric.

The appropriate metric is selected by a three input multiplexer and stored as the new value of MT in the node metric register. The decision which determines the best metric also determines the information bit. The information bits are shifted into an encoder which determines the check bits for the next computation. After the information bits shift through the encoder, they are stored in the appropriate track of the information bit memory.

As the decoder moves forward, the state bits are updated. Each check bit from the encoder is exclusive-OR'd with the sign bit of the corresponding received symbol. The result is exclusive-OR'd with the corresponding state parity bit and stored as the new state parity bit. At the same time, the quantity, KLEFT, is decreased by one. When backing up, KLEFT is increased by one and the state parity bits are changed back to their original condition. The alternate branch state bit is set to 1 or 0, depending on whether the forward move is along the best or worst branch, respectively.

3.2.3 Track Control Logic

The function of the track control logic is to monitor the performance of the decoder and to switch to another track when the decoder bogs down on the present track. The decoder's progress on the present track is monitored by a counter which is incremented when the decoder threshold is loosened. The counter is reset to zero when the decoder tightens threshold. The number in this counter is continuously compared with a stopping threshold, DSTOP. If the threshold is violated, then the track control logic switches the decoder to the next unfinished track.

The decoder's penetration is also monitored by an up/down counter which is zeroed when decoding switches to a new track. If, when the DSTOP threshold is violated, the decoder has penetrated far enough that progress has been made, a register, KROUND, is reset. Otherwise, KROUND is incremented by one.

If KROUND becomes equal to the number of unfinished tracks, then progress is no longer being made by any of the unfinished tracks. In this case, the unfinished tracks are restarted at the beginning of the block and the stopping threshold, DSTOP, is loosened.

The stopping threshold, DSTOP, is a function of KLEFT and DI, the number of times the unfinished tracks have been initialized. The quantity, KLEFT, is stored in the state memory. The quantity, DI, is the contents of a 2 bit counter, initially zero, which is incremented whenever all unfinished tracks become stalled, as determined from KROUND equaling KLEFT. The DI counter is reset whenever a new track is finished. The stopping thresholds are stored in 32 words of a single MECL 10,000 ROM addressed by KLEFT (3 bits) and DI (2 bits).

When the stopping threshold, DSTOP, is violated, then the track control logic stops the decoding of the present track and begins the decoding of a new track. If KROUND equals KLEFT, all unfinished tracks are stalled and all uncoded tracks are reinitialized. The simulations of Ref. 14 and 15 assume restarting at the track origins. However, some time and probably computations would be saved if reinitialization were achieved by starting at a point between the origin and the present node, that is, by backing up a fixed distance after stalling.

When switching to a new track, only those nodes which lie ten nodes or more behind the present node are considered to be "definitely" decoded. Since the state has been updated to the present node, the decoder is backed up ten nodes, thusly restoring the state bits of non-definitely decoded nodes to their previous values. To provide correct information for the next restart, the decoder is then forced forward 24 nodes, with all decoding operations suspended, thus storing the encoder contents in the information bit memory.

Track change is then accomplished by incrementing the 3 bit track pointer counter which selects the active track. The track address counter of the new active track is checked to see if this track is completely decoded. If so, the track pointer counter is incremented until an unfinished track is found.

Decoding of this track is started by first loading the encoder by forcing the decoder to back up 24 nodes. The metric register and the progress counter are then reset to zero. The present node then forms a "pseudo origin" for the subsequent decoding operations. This completes the switching process and the decoder is allowed to proceed until the stopping threshold is violated again, or until the track is completely decoded.

In the event that all unfinished tracks are stalled, then they must be restarted at the beginning of the block or at intermediate points. But first the state must be

cleared of the effects of the unfinished decoders. This is accomplished by loading each unfinished track into the decoder and forcing it to back up a fixed number of nodes or to the beginning of the track. Decoding then resumes but with a looser stopping threshold.

3.2.4 Parts Count Estimation

The part count necessary to implement the decoder has been estimated. The estimate is based on the use of presently available ECL 10,000 and 9,500 series logic circuits. The MECL 10139 ROM or equivalent has been assumed to be available in the near future. The parts count has been broken down as follows:

Memory and Associated Registers	170
Metric Calculation	50
Metric Testing and Selection	30
State Calculation & Update Logic	15
Track Control Logic	30
Encoder	25
Memory Address Registers	30
Miscellaneous	50
External Buffer	50
TOTAL	450

Table 3.1.1 Approximate I.C. Requirements for Hybrid Bootstrap Sequential Decoding.

This number of circuits can be packaged on 5-6 circuit boards approximately 8x8 inches in size. Prime power requirements are approximately 400 watts, assuming 50% power supply efficiency.

3.2.5 Decoder Computation Rate

The part of the decoder that determines the maximum computation rate is the branch metric calculation and selection circuitry shown in Figure 3.2.2. Note that the entire branch metric computation is done in one computational cycle. The total delay through this circuitry is approximately 60 nanoseconds including set-up and propagation delays of the flip-flop registers involved. This is the basis for the 15 Megacomputations per second decoding speed forecast.

It is possible to speed up the process by the use of pipeline techniques; i.e., by doing part of the metric calculation on the previous computational cycle. The difficulty here is that whatever portion of the hardware operates on the previous cycle must compute branch metrics for three times as many nodes. This is because the present computational cycle may step back or step forward to two different nodes and symbol metrics have to be provided for all three possibilities.

The use of MECL III in the symbol metric summers was considered briefly and rejected in favor of the ECL 10181 arithmetic logic unit. It was found that only a small improvement could be made in propagation delay at greatly increased chip count and cost. Actually, the increased size of the resulting circuit board layout would probably cancel the smaller propagation delay because of increased wire length.

3.3 Other Bootstrap Decoding Techniques

The design of Section 3.2 is based on the best understood of the bootstrap sequential decoding techniques. The basic hybrid bootstrap decoding algorithm is well suited for hardware implementations, but initial simulation results do not indicate any clear performance improvement over concatenated convolutional - RS decoding which is somewhat simpler to implement.

3.3.1 Multiple Processors

Hybrid bootstrap decoding performance could be improved if the speed factor of the sequential decoder could be effectively increased by factors greater than 2 without significant cost increments. One approach with potential promise is utilization of multiple processors. Initial discussed by Hofman and Odenwalder 15, simulations, demonstrated a reduction in performance. The problem appears to reside in the communication problem among the processors and, in particular, in techniques for revising state information and recognizing definitely decoded sections without introducing errors. Each sequential decoder must be able to accept changes in branch metric assignments without complete initialization, without looking, and without significant computational increases. Further work is indicated. †

[†] Section 3.3.2 was authored by Dr. F. Jelinek, a consultant to LINKABIT on this study. He considers application of bootstrap techniques to Viterbi (trellis) decoding with long constraint length codes.

3.3.2 Bootstrap Trellis Decoding

3.3.2.1 Description of Rudimentary Decoder

Let K be the constraint length of a convolutional code, and let the constraint length of the corresponding truncated trellis decoder be μ <K (i.e., the truncated decoder has $2^{\mu-1}$ states per level). We will assume that K is so large that the probability of error for maximum likelihood decoding at the signal-to-noise ratio (SNR) used is negligible compared to the probability of error resulting from the scheme described below.

The rudimentary Bootstrap Trellis decoding algorithm is as follows:

- 1. m-l streams of binary data are encoded using the K constraint length code, and an mth stream is created using mod 2 position-by-position addition of the M-l streams.
- 2. The m streams are transmitted through the channel, and the receiver creates an appropriate state stream as in Bootstrap Sequential Decoding.
- 3. A μ -truncated trellis decoder is used to decode the first stream, with metrics based on the corresponding received and state stream digits. To each depth of the N-branch codeword there correspond 2^{m-1} likelihoods, the maximum of these at depth n being denoted by L_n .

Let

 $L_n^M = \max_{1 < i < n} L_i$

so L_n^M is a monotone increasing function of $n\epsilon(1,\ldots,N)$. If $L_n^M-L_n< T$ for all n, the decoder accepts the decoded first stream information sequence, otherwise it rejects it (in fact, it will stop decoding after smallest depth n is searched for which $L_n^M-L_n\leq T$).

- 4. If the 1st stream was accepted, it is replaced by the estimated transmitted stream, the state stream is accordingly recalculated, and the decoder proceeds to decode the 2nd stream as in step 3, using a metric table appropriate to m-1 undecoded streams.
- 5. If the 1st stream was rejected, 2nd stream decoding proceeds exactly as in (3) with no change to either metric or state stream.
- 6. Steps 3 through 5 establishes a pattern that is adhered to in general: after every acceptance, the state stream and metrics are recalculated and decoding of the "round rowin" next stream begins.
- 7. Decoding terminates in either of two ways:
 - a) SUCCESS: all m streams get finally accepted.
 - b) FAILURE: when l streams, (l≤m), remain undecoded, l successive attempts at stream decoding end with rejection.

3.3.2.2 Analytical Performance Estimates

Using simple arguments, analogous to the ones appearing in the Bootstrap Sequential Decoding paper, it is possible to obtain bounds on the probability of DECCDING FAILURE, P(F).

Let E_k (R) be the probability of undetected error exponent corresponding to maximum likelihood decoding of the first of k streams that utilize the received as well as state stream digits when the <u>convolutional</u> rate is R (the net rate taking into account the parity stream degradation is $\frac{m-1}{m}$ R). Then

$$P(F) = \begin{cases} \leq \max_{2 \leq k \leq m} \min \\ \geq \max_{3 \leq k \leq m} \end{cases} \begin{cases} \left[NA_{\infty} 2^{-\mu E_{\infty}} (R) \right]^{k}, NA_{k} 2^{-\mu E_{k}} (R) \right] \\ \geq \max_{3 \leq k \leq m} \end{cases} \begin{cases} \left[NA_{k} 2^{-\mu E_{k}} (R) \right]^{k}, NA_{2} 2^{-\mu E_{2}} (R) \end{cases}$$

$$(3.3.1)$$

where A_{ℓ} is a monotonically increasing function of the number of undecoded streams ℓ that depends on the rate R but varies negligibly with μ . From (3.3.1) it follows that

$$E_{LB}$$
 (R) $\leq \lim_{u \to \infty} -\frac{1}{\mu} \log P(F) \leq E_{UB}$ (R) (3.3.2)

where estimates of both exponents are readily available. In fact, let us assume that the combined expurgated and random coding bound exponents are the true exponents.

Then

$$E_{k}(R) = \begin{cases} \sigma & \text{if the solution of } R = \frac{1}{\sigma} E_{k}^{o}(\sigma) \text{ is } \sigma \leq 1 \\ \beta & \text{if the solution of } R = \frac{1}{\beta} E_{k}^{x}(\beta) \text{ is } \beta \geq 1 \end{cases}$$

$$1 & \text{otherwise} \qquad (3.3.3)$$

where, for the binary input, 2b-ary output symmetrical channel, and binary state stream,

$$E_{k}^{o}(\sigma) = \sigma - \log \sum_{v=1}^{b} \left(\left\{ \left[w(0,v|0)q_{k-1}(0) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}} + \left[w(1,v|0)q_{k-1}(1) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}} \right\}^{1+\sigma} + \left[w(1,v|0)q_{k-1}(1) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}} \right\}^{1+\sigma} + \left[w(1,v|0)q_{k-1}(1) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}}$$

$$+\left\{ \left[w(0,v|0)q_{k-1}(1) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}} + \left[w(1,v|0) q_{k-1}(0) \right]^{\frac{1}{1+\sigma}} \right\}^{1+\sigma} \right\}$$

Above, the channel outputs are pairs (u,v), $u \in (0,1)$, $v \in \{1,...,b\}$ and the inputs are $x \in (0,1)$. The transmission probability, w(u,v|x) is symmetric: $w(u,v|x) = w(u\oplus 1, v|x\oplus 1)$

Furthermore,

$$q_{k-1}^{(0)} = \frac{1+(1-2p)}{2}$$

$$q_{k-1}$$
 (1) = $\frac{1-(1-2p)}{2}$

$$p=\sum_{v=1}^{b} w(1,v \mid 0)$$

Finally,

$$E_{k}^{X}(\sigma) = \sigma - \sigma \log \left[1 + \sum_{v=1}^{b} \sqrt{w(o, v/o)w(1, v/o)q_{k-1}(0)q_{k-1}(1)}\right]$$

Clearly, for (3.3.1) and (3.3.2)

$$E_{LB}(R) = \min \max \left\{ kE_{\infty}(R), E_{k}(R) \right\}$$
 $2 \le k \le m$

$$E_{UB}(R) = \min \left\{ \min \left\{ k E_{k}(R) \right\}, E_{2}(R) \right\}$$

$$3 \le k \le n$$

To obtain parametric relations between $E_{\mathrm{LB}}(R)$ and $E_{\mathrm{UB}}(R)$ and R, we may proceed as follows. Define

$$E_{k}(\alpha) = \begin{cases} E_{k}^{O}(\alpha) & \alpha \leq 1 \\ \vdots & \alpha \\ E_{k}^{X}(\alpha) & \alpha > 1 \end{cases}$$

Then E_{LB} (R) = α for

R= max
$$\left\{\frac{1}{\alpha} E_{m}(\alpha), \min\left\{\frac{1}{\alpha} E_{k}^{+}-1(\alpha), \frac{k^{+}}{\alpha} E_{\infty}\left(\frac{\alpha}{k}^{+}\right)\right\}\right\}$$

Where

$$k^+ = \min \left\{ k : k \ge 2, \frac{1}{\alpha} E_k(\alpha) \ge \frac{k}{\alpha} E_{\infty}(\frac{\alpha}{k}) \right\}$$

Finally,

$$E_{IIS} = \alpha \text{ for }$$

$$R = \min \left\{ \frac{1}{\alpha} E_2(\alpha), \frac{k}{\alpha} E_k^* \left(\frac{\alpha}{k} \right) \right\}$$

where

$$k^* = \min \left\{ m, \min \left\{ k : k \ge 3, \frac{k}{\alpha} E_k \left(\frac{\alpha}{k} \right) \le \frac{k+1}{\alpha} E_{k+1} \left(\frac{\alpha}{k+1} \right) \right\} \right\}$$

3.3.2.3 Refinements of the Decoding Algorithm

1. It is not necessary to reject entire stream when threshold violated (i.e. at some ℓ , L_{ℓ}^{M} - $L_{\ell} \ge T$). Let k< ℓ be such that $L_{\ell}^{M} = L_{k}$ and let J be an optimized integer. Then when threshold violation occurs at depth ℓ , all decoded bits up to the K-Jth one are accepted, the corresponding state stream digits are recalculated, and on subsequent attempts the appropriate metrics are used. The next decoding of that stream then starts at position k-J, rather than at position 1.

This pull-up strategy will occasionally introduce errors into the accepted stream sections, so an error-cleanup method must also be agreed on. There is furthermore the problem that J should probably increase with μ , but this may not be serious in the "reasonable" range $\mu \le 10$.

2. If the pull-up strategy of (1) is used, then at the end of the first m attempts, the length of the definitely decoded sections will have a monotone increasing tendency, e.g.:

•

For this reason it might be useful to modify the round robin strategy by next decoding backwards starting with the last not fully accepted stream and continuing with the next-to-last stream, etc. After recoding the first stream in this manner, decoding would start again in the forward direction, etc.

Unlike a true maximum likelihood decoder, a truncated decoder is <u>not</u> symmetrical in both directions. Therefore, backward decoding might avoid some errors coded in the forward direction and vice versa. The code should be picked so it is strong in both directions.

- 3. More complex algebraic codes ought to be considered, such as the three group code.
- 4. A decoding failure does not mean that the entire block must be thrown away. In fact, in the definately decoded sections there will probably be no errors whatever. When FAILURE takes place, one should probably go one more round, ignoring the threshold stopping rule and decoding each stream to its end, simply accepting the admittedly unreliable decoder decisions. With a systematic or quick-lookin code, one might reconstruct the unreliable positions simply from the uncoded received information bits.
- 5. The final stopping rule that would minimize the probability of error in the pull up mode (1) would be that failure results when further decoding results in no enlargement of definitely accepted stream sections.

Alternately, it might be desirable to fix the number of allowed decoding attempts on each track, perform these, and accept the last decisions regardless of whether additional progress was being made or not. This approval might be particularly useful if several truncated decoders working in parallel would be available. As one possibility, say 3 sets of m decoders would work continuously on 3 successive received blocks as follows:

the ithstate stream inform-

the (i + 1) th state stream information ation is updated is updated according according to the to the decoding dedecisions of the Acisions of the first decoder set. decoder set.

first set of decoders works on i + 2 hock independently, using the state stream, but each assuming that m streams are undecoded at all depths.

third set of decoders works indep. on the ith block, using side information
developed by 2nd decoder set. Decisions are released as final to the user.

Second set of decoders works on the (i + 1) tock independently, but using all side information provided by the 1 set of decoders. 6. One way to avoid rejection is to increase the truncated constraint length μ . Thus, for example, in the rudimentary decoding algorithm of section I, one would have a sequence $\mu_1 < \mu_2 < \dots < \mu_\ell$ of constraint lengths.

Starting with constraint length μ_1 , decoding of a block would be attempted until either a SUCCESS or a FAILURE was declared. In the latter case, decoding would begin again based on constraint length μ_2 and would continue until either a new stream was accepted, or another FAILURE resulted. In the former case, decoders would revert to constraint length μ_1 ; in the latter case constraint length would be increased to μ_3 , etc. FAILURE with constraint length μ_1 , would be final.

This game could be played in a variety of ways. Another possibility is to have a sequence of constraint lengths $\mu_2 \leq \mu_3 \leq \ldots \leq \mu_m \text{ (m is the number of streams). Constraint length } \mu_m \text{ is used until one stream is accepted or FAILURE is declared. In the former case, constraint length } \mu_{m-1} \text{ will be used until another stream is accepted or FAILURE is declared.}$

7. It is not clear that the pull-up strategy of (1) is in the non-asymptic case more desirable than the rudimentary one. Indeed, it may be much simpler to shorten the stream length N and use the latter strategy.

8. The final possibility is to bootstrap on a concatenated code. To stay simple, suppose an R-S code is used over GF(8) that is single error correcting (not realistic, of course). The algebraic rate then is $\frac{5}{7}$.

Form 5 information streams and add 2 parity check streams using the R-S relation. Next encode each of the streams by use of rate 1/2 convolutional code that has eight 6-bit branches leaving each node. The matrix of the convolutional code will have the partitioned form (K = 6 in this example):

Here $G_{\underline{i}}$ are 3 x 3 binary metrics that are <u>restricted</u> to have the forms

or
$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$
 , n= 1,2,..., 7

In this way G_i 's are representations of the powers of the primitive element over GF(8). It can be shown that the restriction does not damage the error correcting capabilities of the code, at least not in the limit of large constraint lengths, K > 1.

If a convolutional code of the indicated form is used, then it can easily be shown that the corresponding branch triplets of the 7 streams will have the R-S relationship. In fact, if we number the digits as indicated,

1 2 3

4 5 6

7 8 9

10 11 12

13 14 15

16 17 18

19 20 21

they will satisfy the parity check Matrix

```
010
                100
                     110
                           100
                                 000
     101
           101
                010
                      111
                           010
                                 000
     011
           011
010
                001
                      010
                           001
                                 000
           010
000
     110
                      100
                010
                           110
                                 100
000
     111
           101
                101
                      010
                           111
                                 010
000 010 011 011 001 010 001
```

Consequently, sets of these digits will be algebraically related, and thus bootstrapping will be possible. If the bootstrapping is to be simple, individual bits in the triplets—should get independent metrics. This is not rigorously possible, but from a practical point of view it may be enough to provide three separate parity check equations, each involving only one digit of the triplet. For digits 1,2,3 and parity checks are

001 101 100 101 000 100

It would seem poss ble to keep state information for each light according to its parity block set and then perform ordinary single parity bootstrapping. After the decoding of all streams is completed, the R-S code can be used to correct remaining errors in the estimated information streams. Of course, the H-Matrix contains the possibilities for 3-group codes, and even more complicated ones, all of which might be worth investigating.

4.0 Conclusions and Recommendations

Tables 1.0.1, 2.5.1, and 3.1.1 summarize the complexity of the concatenated and hybrid coding systems studied. It appears that the concatenated system is more cost effective for approximately the same performance as the hybrid systems. Its only drawback lies in the interleaving requirements which increase both the decoding delay and the gaps of non-data (mostly parity-check bits) by over an order of magnitude relative to the hybrid system. On the other hand, these probably are not a detriment for time-division multiplexed users, and for systems where this is a problem, staggered interleaving will reduce the gap lengths to those of the hybrid system, possibly at a small cost in decoder complexity.

It is therefore our conclusion that a concatenated coding system utilizing a rate 1/3, constraint length-8, inner convolutional coder-Viterbi decoder, a 2048-bit Reed-Solomon outer block coder-decoder, and 16 words of inter-leaving, operating at 100 Kbps data rates is implementable in its entirety by a system employing approximately 333 TTL integrated circuits. The coding gain at $P_b=10^{-7}$ for this system is over 9dB. Hybrid bootstrap sequential decoding would require on the order of 50% more integrated circuits of the ECL-MSI (such as MECL 10,000) legic family. Furthermore, the performance of the latter would vary with data rate, being slightly superior (0.2dB) at 10 Kbps bit and somewhat inferior (1.0 dB) at 100 Kbps.

It should also be emphasized that the simulations of the hybr—otstrap system are not completely conclusive, and hence the technical risk is much greater in this system. Among its principal weaknesses are its sensitivity to AGC inaccuracy and phase tracking errors, which has been shown (Ref. 8) to be considerable even for ordinary sequential decoding. In concatenated decoding, on the other hand, these channel inaccuracies produce a moderate known degradation (Ref. 8) on the inner Viterbi decoder, which are easily shown to reflect directly and in almost the same amount on the overall coding scheme.

Otherwise the performance of the two seemingly radically different approaches are remarkably similar. The basic reaso in retrospect, is that, as information theory establishes, highly efficient communication over a Gaussian channel requires extremely long block lengths. The hybrid and concatenated systems considered here itilize about the same "superblock" length - 2 to 3 Kbits - with highly efficient convolutional and block codes - hence the similar performance.

One final advantage of implementing a concatenated scheme is the essentially individual and self-justifying nature of each portion of the system. Viterbi decoders at these data rates exist already (albeit only for the less powerful K=7, R=1/2 code and not for the K=8, R=1/3) and could be inserted without procurement delay as the inner decoders.

The outer Reed-Solomon coder-decoder could be easily justified as a worthwhile development in its own right, since such a powerful (255 characters over GF(2⁸) with 16- error-correction capability) decoder has never been implemented in hardware. Finally, even the relatively straightforward interleaver could be justified by itself as a means of breaking up burst errors in convolutional decoding. Thus, such a development would produce multi-purpose components as well as an integrated system which might once and for all conclude the quest for the ultimate coding system for space communications.

Appendix A

This appendix contains a Fortran and an assembly language version of a partial R-S decoder program. Normally the inputs to this program are:

- 1. J = the number of bits per R-3 symbol.
- 2. E = the designed number of correctable errors.
- 3. The coefficients of the J-degree primitive polynomial of a field element which generates the field.
- 4. The 2E syndromes represented as integers.

However, to avoid computing the syndromes by hand, a few additional statemer as were added at the beginning of the program to enable the computer to determine these quantities from the error locations and error values.

Of course, in a real system the syndromes would be computed from the received word. But the method used here is more convenient in checking and timing the various steps in the decoding operation. The program outputs are the error locations and the error values.

The Fortran version of this program contains numerous comment cards describing the various steps in the program.

The assembly language version follows the same format as the Fortran version. In addition to the basic IBM 1130 assembly language instructions, a few instructions unique

to the LINKABIT system have been used. A brief description of these instructions is given in Table A.1.

Following Table A.1 is a listing of first the Fortran and then the assembly language version of this program.

Mnemonic Code	Instruction
CAR	Copy accumulator to register.
CRA	Copy register to accumulator.
XIR	Interchange index 1 with register.
X2R	Interchange index 2 with register.
X3R	Interchange index 3 with register.
EORR	Exclusive-OR register to accumulator.
SBR	Subtract register from accumulator.
NI	Increase register by one.
DER	Decrease register by one and increase the instruction address register by one on sign change.
DERS	Decrease register by one and increase the instruction address register by one unless there is a sign change.
ICTI	Increase register 1 by one and branch unless the result equals the contents of register 4.
ICT'S	Increase register $2\ \mathrm{by}$ one and branch unless the result equals the contents of register $4.$

Table A.1 LINKABIT Supplement to the IBM 1130 Assembly Language Instruction Set.

Internal Internal	Note
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	1300 LX=I/C1
	1400 JNG1-LX+1 ICh=ECK(IDN+IA(IRC1))
	2000 CCK TINUE
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- 40	IF(IEN) 3000,2010,3000
J	SHIFT RE CIENT BLOCK
	2010 CC 2100 I=1.LIM2
	IAD1=1+1
	IRS(I)=IRS(INCI)
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	TROCINET)
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	L+711 C
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	CC 17 1000
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	3000 JF(h-2*LN) 3100,3500,3500
-	N LESS THAN 2*LE FLOCK
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FAGE 6	INDS=IRI(INDI) LSIGF(LIM7)=L(IND2)	6100 CCNTINUE C COMPLTE ERROR VALUE CC 7000 I=1. NERK	LX=LAA(J)+LOC(I)*7AA(J)	LX=LX-(LX/LIM1)*LIM1+1 LA=ECR(JA,IA(LX)) 6200 CGN 13NUE	LX=LSIGP(J)+LCC(I)*ISIGP(J)	6 4	6410 JACI=LX+1 IVALL(I)=IA(INDI) 7000 CUNTINUE	EIOO KRITL(S.PIOO) KG.NERTC EIOO FCRMAT(12H1A 2 TC THE .12.17H SYMBOL R-S CODE. 1/32H NUMBER OF CORRECTABLE FRPORS = .12/////)	IF(LIP4) 6115.8115.8110 8110 TF(NFR) 7115.8115.813r 8115 WRITE(5,8120)	6146 FCRFAT(34H EFROR LCCATION ERRGR VALUEZ) FC 8360 1=1.NERR SAITE (5.8200) I.LCC(I).IVALU(I)	6200 FC" AT(IH ,12.7X,15,10X,15) 6300 CCATINUE 9000 SICP	EAL
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The following pages give the assembly language version of the preceding program. It is organized so that the input and output statements are in Fortran and the rest of the program is in an assembly language subprogram.

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